

THE DISCOURSE STRUCTURE OF VOA AND AL JAZEERA NEWS IN REPORTING ISRAELI- PALESTINE CONFLICT

REFERENCES DETAIL

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Society and Discourse

How Social Contexts
Influence Text and Talk

Teun A. van Dijk

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The contemporary gap between the cognitive and social sciences is the result of a regrettable reductionist ideology: interactionism (as we shall call it). This ideology shares with behaviorism the positivist fallacy of “observability” according to which talk or action are observable or socially available, but not the allegedly “individualistic” minds of language users. However, if we agree that we use and analyze discourse in terms of structures and meanings – which are obviously non-observable, but known, construed or handled by the minds of language users – then there is no reason to reject that, very fundamentally, talk or text without “thought” is literally meaningless.

In other words, discourse and actions are not immediately observable at all, but interpreted conduct attributed to social actors, for instance in terms of meanings, intentions and goals. New developments in the cognitive and neurosciences have shown that such interpretations of conduct as social action are part of our ability to “read” other minds as a mirror of our own.

A detailed analysis of interaction has significantly contributed to our insights into discourse and language use. However, what is observably done or said is only the tip of the iceberg of a communicative event. Language users do not mindlessly participate in such events as if they were blank slates. They come with vast amounts of socioculturally shared knowledge, with

personal experiences, with plans, goals, opinions and emotions, all of which may influence what they say and how they say it. They not only interpret what is observably said or shown, but by “reading” the minds of interlocutors they are able to understand subtleties of text and talk far beyond the socially based implications or implicatures. Hence, eliminating the mind from talk-in-interaction necessarily under-analyzes the data at hand. And there are many other methods to study what is going on in discourse and communication than mere interaction analysis of “observable” talk.

Critical approaches to discourse have emphasized that the same is obviously true when we take participants as mere talkers and not as social actors that bring social identities, roles or power relations with them to the communicative event. The theory of context developed in this book agrees with this criticism of socially context-free interactionism. However, it stresses that social structure, properties of social situations and hence the social properties of participants do not objectively or causally influence text and talk, but that such influence is mediated by the subjective models of the participants. Even those scholars who reject cognitivist theorizing in terms of mental models will agree that social properties of situations and participants need to be analyzed only when they are ongoingly “made relevant” by the participants themselves.

The theory of context models accounts for the representations and processes involved in this “making relevant” of the cognitive and social properties of social situations. In this sense, the theory is not incompatible with the interactional approaches in much of the social sciences today. It integrates them by making explicit what is usually being taken for granted or formulated in vague descriptions. At the same time it extends current context-free approaches to text and talk by articulating a multidisciplinary framework that provides the much needed missing link between discourse, cognition and society.

In order to be able to do so, we have selectively explored *social psychology* and its studies of the structures of social episodes and situations, as well as the socially shared representations, such as knowledge and ideologies, that language users apply in the construction of their context models. One of the recurrent questions we’ll try to answer in these literature reviews and the formation of new theory is which of the potentially vast number of properties of social situations are systematically construed as relevant for discourse. Indeed, why is the gender or status of participants often construed as *discursively* relevant and therefore indexed, and not their height or the color of their eyes, although the latter may be *socially* relevant.

of context, such as shared knowledge and the incremental nature of knowledge change in discourse. They are thus able to provide a more explicit account of such important phenomena of meaning as presuppositions and indexical expressions or the conditions of speech acts.

Sociolinguistics and social discourse analysis

Whereas much of pragmatics, at least initially, had a more abstract, philosophical or logical orientation, and then focused more on interaction and conversation, sociolinguistics has always had a more empirical basis. Again, the focus here is on language use, and not on social situations or contexts per se, but the main idea is that specific aspects of language use, such as pronunciation and lexical choice, vary as a function of independent social variables such as the class, age, gender, ethnicity or origin of the language users (Labov, 1972a, 1972b). Thus, no doubt a recording of Blair's speech would show how his pronunciation identifies him as a member of a specific region or social class, or maybe even as a member of a community or group such as politicians or parliamentarians, for instance as signaled by such expressions as "my honourable friend."

We see that *contexts* are defined here in terms of specific categories of speakers and as members of different speech communities. However, sociolinguistics largely took such social categories for granted, without much further *social* analysis, and did not systematically examine the much more complex nature of communicative situations. Although dealing with contextual influence as defined in terms of social group membership of speakers, the crucial difference with the theory of context presented in this book is that first of all such social "variables" were considered objective properties of communicative situations, and secondly that they were assumed to have a direct impact on language use and variation, whereas in a mental model theory of context such social categories are subjective and their relationship to language use mediated by participant representations. That is, unlike more deterministic and probabilistic sociolinguistic accounts of language variation, the theory of context developed in this book crucially construes social group membership and identities of language users in terms of how they ongoingly and variably construe themselves in their subjective experiences, that is, in their mental models. In that sense our approach contributes to a more explicit, sociocognitive, foundation of the current constructionist perspective in the humanities and social sciences, and hence also to a new orientation in sociolinguistics itself.

Moreover, traditional sociolinguistics limited the study of language variation to local and superficial aspects of language use such as phonological, morphological, lexical and (some) syntactic variation of words and

Introduction: social psychological dimensions of context

Contexts defined as mental models of social situations of communication are in many ways interfaces between discourse and society. If there is one discipline that studies the relations between people, their conduct and society it is social psychology. I shall therefore explore in this chapter some of the contributions that social psychology has made, or could make, to the study of context. For instance, social psychology has for decades studied the ways various properties of the social situation influence people's "behavior," and has proposed several taxonomies for the structure of such situations that may be relevant for our theory of context.

As is the case for many other disciplines, social psychology is hardly a systematic, well-organized body of knowledge about the relations between people and society, but rather a loose community of many different research groups interested in topics such as those summarized by the following keywords:

accommodation, action, affect, affiliation, aggression, altruism, attitudes, attraction, attribution, authoritarianism, behavior, beliefs, categorization, cognitive dissonance, collective behavior, communication, compliance, conflict, conformity, consensus, cooperation, crime, crowds, deviance, discrimination, emotions, frustration, gender, groups, identity, impressions, influence, ingroups, interaction, intergroup relations, interpersonal relations, judgments, labeling, language, leadership, love, norms, obedience, outgroups, personality, persuasion, power, prejudice, propaganda, roles, self, self-categorization, self-esteem, social cognition, social movements, social representations, socialization, speech, status, stereotypes, values.

Although this list is of course not exhaustive, social psychologists will recognize the main topics that have filled their journals and books for decades, with varying degrees of popularity (see, e.g., the introduction by Hewstone and Stroebe, 2001).

Behind the seemingly haphazard choice of topics, we recognize a permanent concern to understand people and their "behavior" in relation to other people, groups, situations and society at large.

In other words, an integrated approach of social cognition, social representations and discourse analysis, as I have been advocating for years (see, e.g., Van Dijk, 1990), is still on the agenda.

Within the framework of a theory of context, however, the list of typical research topics in social psychology offers suggestions for an approach to the study of the social situations in which people communicate, and whose relevant properties they construe as contexts. Thus, speech participants obviously have various kinds of social identities and roles, may feel attracted to one another, try to make a good impression on other participants, might become aggressive about what the other says, show affect or altruism, categorize interlocutors, follow norms of communication, act in conformity with their group, say prejudiced things they share with their ingroup, presuppose knowledge of recipients, accommodate to their interlocutors, and so on. Even this brief enumeration suggests how fruitful social psychological research may be for a more explicit and detailed theory of context, its categories and the ways these may influence the production and comprehension of text and talk.

On the other hand, the vast majority of the phenomena typically studied in social psychology are unthinkable without a prominent discursive dimension, and it is therefore more than remarkable that discourse analysis has played such a marginal role in traditional and even much of modern social psychology.

Since a single chapter cannot possibly review and apply the many thousands of studies of more than half a century of social psychology, I shall focus only on some of the phenomena often studied in social psychology that may shed light on the multidisciplinary theory of context:

- Understanding (structures and categories of) social situations
- Social variations of speech (style, register, etc.)
- Group membership and social identity of discourse participants
- Social cognition and social representations shared by participants
- Strategies of social interaction
- Relations between social groups (power, etc.).

Summarizing even further, the social psychological notions that are relevant for a theory of context are: social situations, social actors, social beliefs, social interactions and social groups, and of course language, discourse and communication. That is, we select those aspects of the study of social situations that have a combined cognitive and social dimension, and that will allow us to relate the cognitive approach presented in *Discourse and Context* to the social and cultural analyses developed in the next chapters.

In this chapter, then, we no longer deal with language users or discourse participants as individuals, but rather with social actors as members of groups

with the very notion of “situation” itself, and then focus on Settings, Participants, Action and Social Cognition as relevant elements of communicative events.

The study of these notions has a long history in social psychology, as is also the case for our own perspective on communicative situations: Already G. H. Mead and symbolic interactionism emphasized that the objects of environments should not be defined in absolute terms, but as situationally constituted from the perspective of the participants in ongoing activity (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934; see also *Discourse and Context*, Chapter 2). It is, however, beyond the scope of this book to trace the theoretical history of all notions discussed, and I shall therefore focus only on some contemporary studies of situational parameters.

Social situations

Since contexts in this book are defined as subjective definitions of communicative situations, let us begin with a review of the social psychological study of social situations and how these are understood by social actors and influence their activities.¹ In this chapter this analysis will focus on the contributions from social psychology itself, and I shall not repeat the review provided in *Discourse and Context* of studies in cognitive psychology about events and situations that also have had a very profound influence on social psychology, such as schema theory and script theory.

It is sometimes claimed that one of the major objects of research in social psychology has been the social situation (Ross and Nisbett, 1991). Nothing is less true, however. Although the notion appears in the titles of many articles, there is only one monograph and one edited book entirely dedicated to the study of social situations, both published more than 20 years ago (Argyle, Furnham and Graham, 1981; Furnham and Argyle, 1981). Moreover, both books are not limited to social psychology, but also deal with sociology and anthropology. Compared to the many books on, say, attitudes, attribution and the other main topics listed above, the explicit study of social situations has been rather scanty in social psychology, even though the dominant perspective is sometimes claimed to be one of “situationism”

¹ Instead of the traditional notion of “behavior,” I shall variously use other notions, such as “conduct,” “action,” “interaction,” “activities” and “social practice,” each with a different conceptual meaning, and with an increasingly personal, interpersonal, social, societal and cultural dimension, respectively. Of these notions “conduct” comes closest to the notion of “behavior” when defined as the observable bodily manifestation of social action. As we shall see later, action, interaction and related notions are to be defined as *intended* or *interpreted* conduct, that is, as also involving a mental dimension.

influence on discourse production and comprehension. In that more restricted sense, context is a selection of the discursively *relevant* properties of the communicative situation. Thus, that Tony Blair is Prime Minister and that some MPs are members of the Conservative Party would typically be relevant for at least some parts of his speech and its understanding.

On the other hand, whereas political group membership will typically be relevant for most of the parliamentary debate, the color of a participant's shirt or skirt is hardly a relevant part of the communicative context, in the sense that it would control the selection and variation of, for instance, topics, lexicon, syntax or pronouns. That is, usually our clothes are seldom *discursively* relevant, although they may often be *socially* relevant, for instance in order to "flag" aspects of our current social identity ("doing feminine"), or to adapt (as does our discourse) to formal vs. informal social events. Politicians are very conscious about their "image" and no doubt their clothes (ties, etc.) are consciously selected and adapted to the occasion in which politicians are going to speak. This also suggests that besides discourse there are other (semiotic) aspects of interaction and communication that may have their own contextual constraints. These, however, shall not be the main focus in this book.

Thus, as a first step, we limit the concept of "context" to those properties of the *communicative* situation that are *relevant* for discourse, and we further stipulate that this is so either for speakers, and hence for the *production* of discourse, and/or for recipients, and hence for the *understanding* of discourse.

The second step is crucial and forms the basis of the theory of this book. I have shown in *Discourse and Context*, and shall further detail in this book, that *contexts* – defined as the *relevant properties of social situations* – *do not influence discourse at all*. There is no *direct* relationship between aspects of the social situation (such as Blair's role as Prime Minister, etc.) and discourse. This is a widespread determinist fallacy, also prevalent in sociolinguistics when it assumes that gender, race, age or status influence the way we speak. *There is no such direct influence, simply because social properties of the situation are not directly involved in the cognitive processes of discourse production and understanding*. These are phenomena of a different kind, of different levels of analysis and description. Only cognitive phenomena can directly influence cognitive processes. Moreover, if such a direct influence between social situations and discourse were to exist, all people in the same social situation would probably speak in the same way, which they obviously don't. Whatever the social influence of the "context," there are always (also) personal differences: each discourse is always unique.

How then do we relate social situations and discourse? How do we account for the uniqueness and the personal variation of text and talk? How do we escape the determinism of social or political forces, but at the same time

combine the undoubted influence of social and political conditions on Blair's speech with the fact that this *specific* speech is personal and unique?

To answer these and other questions, I have taken a rather obvious theoretical decision: contexts are not "objective," but "subjective." They are not a relevant selection of "objective" social properties of the situation, but a *subjective definition* of such a situation. This is perfectly compatible with the notion of *relevance*, because this notion is also inherently *relative*: something is (ir)relevant *for* someone. In other words, *a context is what is defined to be relevant in the social situation by the participants themselves.*

This is exactly how we want to have it. Undoubtedly, in the parliamentary debate his current identity of Prime Minister is relevant to Tony Blair as well as to his recipients, and such a situational property will hence be part of their "definition of the situation." Most likely, this is also the case for his being British, and maybe even, at least for some recipients, that he is male. Once such dimensions of the social situation become part of the context-as-defined they may influence the way people act, speak or understand. In this book, I shall examine in detail how participants engage in such *definitions of the situation* – a notion well known in the history of phenomenological sociology – as the crucial mediating interface between a society and situations, on the one hand, and discourse production and comprehension, on the other hand.

The fundamental theoretical and empirical advantage of this approach is that participants' subjective "definitions of the situation" are *cognitive* objects, for instance a mental representation. It is *this* representation, and *not* the "objective" social situation, that influences the cognitive process of discourse production and comprehension. That is, traditional conceptions of context fail to account for a crucial missing link: the way participants *understand* and *represent* the social situation. We shall see in this book that non-mentalist or even antimentalist conceptions of interaction, discourse and context remain dominant in the social sciences to the present day. On the other hand, that social situations are able to influence discourse only indirectly, namely through their subjective interpretations of the participants, is trivial for most psychologists and cognitive scientists as it was for phenomenological sociologists, as we shall see in Chapter 3.

Mental models

If contexts are subjective definitions, we still need to be more specific as to the nature of such mental representations. Fortunately, since the 1980s we have had a powerful theoretical notion in psychology that meets the requirement of such a concept, namely that of a *mental model* (Johnson-Laird, 1983; called "situation model" by Van Dijk and Kintsch, 1983).



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Structured content

5.1 Introduction

After the classification of discourse types and genres in Chapter 4, the present chapter deals with the ways in which the content of texts is structured. In particular, it discusses the issue of how the topic of a text can be determined and how it may develop. The microlevel of discourse content relies on the basic meanings of individual sentences, which are labelled propositions (Section 5.2). By combining and integrating the meanings of individual sentences through a propositional analysis, sentence topics add up to discourse topics (Section 5.3). In this way, a textual hierarchy with various levels can be determined, resulting in the macrolevel of discourse as a whole.

If dispensable information of a text is omitted and specific details are generalized, this procedure yields the macrostructure of a text, which equals a basic summary (Section 5.4). As far as discourse classification is concerned, the conventionalized form of specific genres such as business letters is called a superstructure, including the logical arrangement of ideas and the orthographic layout (Section 5.5). Alternatively, discourse topics can be defined as clusterings of dominant textual concepts. The conceptual outline of a text is analyzed by investigating the repetition of content lexis and corresponding semantic areas. On this basis, it is possible to identify the topics of separate passages, to discover topic boundaries and to track the development of topics throughout a text (Section 5.6).

5.2 Propositions

The building blocks for discourse are (written) sentences or (spoken) utterances. Within these smallest units of discourse it is possible to convey about the same content in a number of different ways. A well-known example is the similarity between a sentence in the active voice and one in the passive voice. The following

- (22) The Rousseauist especially feels an inner kinship with Prometheus and other Titans. He is fascinated by any form of insurgency. He must show an elementary energy in his explosion against the established order.

The third is thematic progression with **derived themes**, which means that the first sentence establishes a "hypertheme", whereas the following utterances contain more specific subordinate themes. Thus, in Extract (23), the state of "New Jersey" constitutes the theme of the first sentence, which is followed up in the subsequent sentences by related geographical themes regarding the "north-western region" and the "coastal climate".

- (23) New Jersey is flat along the coast and southern portion. The north-western region is mountainous. The coastal climate is mild, but there is considerable cold in the mountain areas during the winter months.

These types of thematic progression can appear in varied forms and combinations in concrete pieces of discourse. Hence, although the distinction between only three main types is definitely a simplification and poses problems in the analysis of longer texts, the approach itself is helpful for the description of the thematic development in discourse.

5.4 Macrostructures

Readers are generally able to give a summary of the topics they have just read. Below is an example of a short story and two possible summaries.

- (24) Pete decided to go on a skiing vacation that year. Up until then he had only gone hiking in the mountains in the summertime, but he had decided that he wanted to learn how to ski and the winter mountain air might be beneficial to his health. He went to a travel agency to get information so that he could choose a destination. Utah seemed the most attractive. Once he had made his choice he went back to the travel agency to book the flight and reserve a room at a hotel that he had found in one of the folders. Naturally, he also needed skis, poles, and boots, but since he did not have the money to buy them, he decided to rent them when he got there. In order to avoid the seasonal rush, he decided to go after the New Year. When the big day finally arrived, he was taken to the airport by his father so that he would not have to deal with his luggage on his own. He took the night flight. He was actually able to sleep on the plane. The following morning Pete arrived, well rested, at his destination. It was snowing. The hotel was right next to the ski resort. The view of the mountains was beautiful. He immediately felt right at home.

(31) A man shortchanged two women.

Macrorules are not rules that can be used in order to trace *the* meaning structure of discourse. The rules only describe the procedures with which *a* meaning structure can be assigned.

5.5 Superstructures

In many cases discourse contains not only a meaning structure, but also a kind of prefab structure to present a structured content: a **superstructure**. A good example is a letter of application. This type of letter usually has a specific form: an introduction to the application, which is followed by an argumentative segment or sales pitch and, in conclusion, perhaps a reference to the curriculum vitae or references. Within such a discourse schema, the content can vary. For this formal structure, Van Dijk introduced the term *superstructure*. Superstructures are conventionalized schemas that provide the global form for the macrostructural content of a piece of discourse. In other words, macrostructures deal with the content and superstructures with the form.

The term *superstructure* also illustrates the fact that the discourse form stands above the content in some sense. When a letter of application is being written, an existing discourse form can be used with a specific content. The addressee of the letter can then easily determine where to find specific information. Superstructures are also used for other genres. The superstructure of a scientific article in which experimental research is reported on could look like Figure 2 (see also Section 4.4).

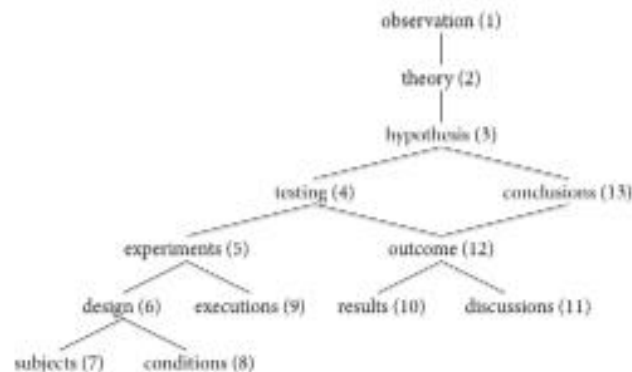


Figure 2. Superstructure of a scientific article reporting on experimental research

As an illustration, the following paragraphs describe a fictitious investigation that has the concept *superstructure* as its topic. Newspaper articles often have a structure that can be represented approximately like this: First, there is a **headline** (sometimes accompanied by a subtitle), which serves as a short summary. Following this is a **lead**: bold print containing the basic gist of the news item. Then comes the news article itself, the **running text**, which is the detailed report of the news item. This is, of course, not a complete description. Furthermore, these rules do not apply to editorials. For simplicity's sake, however, it is assumed that the following observation (1) is correct: news bulletins have a superstructure with a *headline*, a *lead* and a *running text*.

An interesting question is to what degree the superstructure influences the assimilation of the text. Or, to phrase the question in a more limited fashion: Is more or less information acquired from the flat text when there is no lead? On the basis of a theory (2) on text comprehensibility, it can be assumed that a reader will gain more information from a text if it is clear beforehand what the text is about. The following hypothesis (3) can be derived from this theory: More information can be deduced from news articles that have a *lead* than from those that do not. This hypothesis can be tested (4) experimentally (5). For example, readers are given news articles with or without *leads* and are asked questions about the text after they have read it in order to determine the degree of information assimilation. The set-up of the experiment (6), information on the subjects (7) and the conditions (8) will have to be included in the report. If, for example, it were to become clear that some subjects possessed a good deal of prior knowledge concerning the topic of the news article, the results would be less reliable. It must also be reported how the experiment was performed (9), whether the subjects were given equal amounts of time, etc. The results (10), in this case the differences between the answers to the questions, are discussed (11) with the outcome (12) leading to a conclusion (13), in which it is stated whether or not the hypothesis has been confirmed. The components mentioned in the above schema do not have to occur in exactly the order described here. This superstructure or a variation on it can, however, be found in many research reports.

One question that has frequently been investigated is whether a study text is easier to learn if the text itself provides clues about the macrostructure or superstructure. These clues are called **advance organizers**. An organizer can be a title or a subtitle that indicates the content, but it can also be an introductory paragraph in which the structure of the text is explained. Actually, every text fragment that describes the text that follows is an advance organizer. Numerous experiments have made it clear that in certain circumstances advance organizers can aid the learning process, for instance, when a student has very little prior knowledge of the topic. For this reason, many textbooks contain introductory sections that explain the content (macrostructure) and construction (superstructure) of the text.



James Paul Gee

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2 Discourses and social languages

2.1 Building things through language

Language has a magical property: when we speak or write we craft what we have to say to *fit* the situation or context in which we are communicating. But, at the same time, how we speak or write *creates* that very situation or context. It seems, then, that we fit our language to a situation or context that our language, in turn, helped to create in the first place.

This is rather like the “chicken and egg” question: Which comes first? The situation we’re in (e.g. a committee meeting)? Or the language we use (our committee ways of talking and interacting)? Is this a “committee meeting” *because* we are speaking and acting this way, or are we speaking and acting this way *because* this is a committee meeting? After all, if we did not speak and act in certain ways, committees could not exist; but then, if institutions, committees, and committee meetings didn’t already exist, speaking and acting this way would be nonsense. The answer here is that this magical property is real and language and institutions “boot strap” each other into existence in a reciprocal process through time.

Another way to look at the matter is this: we always actively use spoken and written language to create or build the world of activities (e.g. committee meetings) and institutions (committees) around us. However, thanks to the workings of history and culture, we often do this in more or less routine ways. These routines make activities and institutions, like committees and committee meetings, seem to (and, in that sense, actually) exist apart from language and action in the here and now. None the less, these activities and institutions have to be continuously and actively rebuilt in the here and now. This is what accounts for change, transformation, and the power of language-in-action in the world.

We continually and actively build and rebuild our worlds not just through language, but through language used in tandem with actions, interactions, non-linguistic symbol systems, objects, tools, technologies, and distinctive ways of thinking, valuing, feeling, and believing. Sometimes what we build is quite similar to what we have built before; sometimes it is not. But language-in-action is always and everywhere an active building process.

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chapter 1

Introduction

What is Discourse Analysis?

People in a variety of academic departments and disciplines use the term “discourse analysis” for what they do, how they do it, or both. Many of these people, though by no means all, have some training in general linguistics, and some would identify themselves primarily as linguists. Others, however, would identify themselves primarily with other fields of study, such as anthropology, communication, cultural studies, psychology, or education, to list just a few of the possibilities, and some situate their work in the interdisciplinary endeavor of discourse studies. Discourse analysts pose many different questions and propose many different sorts of answers. In one journal issue devoted to discourse analysis (Basham, Fiksdal, and Rounds, 1999), for example, there are papers by eleven people who all think of what they do as discourse analysis. One of these authors talks about the descriptive terms used of the African-American defendant in the media coverage of a murder trial. One talks about differences between English and Japanese. One describes newspaper coverage of a prison scandal in England. Another discusses metaphor, and another analyzes expressions of identity in Athabaskan (Native American) student writing. One talks about

a poem, and there is a paper about the epitaph of the spiritual master of a sect of Muslims and one about whether the pronoun *I* should appear in formal writing. One paper is about the connection between personal pronouns and the human experience of selfhood, one is about political debate, one is about using case studies as a way of studying sociolinguistic variation. The papers make points such as these: media coverage of the murder trial was racist; the Japanese word *jinkaku*, used in Japan's new post-World War II constitution as an equivalent for the English expression *individual dignity*, both represented and shaped a particularly Japanese way of thinking and talking about the public person; female US college students describing seminars used metaphors of sharing whereas male students used metaphors of competing; poems by Gerard Manley Hopkins operate on numerous levels at once; a Bektashi Muslim community in the United States manages to maintain a sense of cultural continuity despite massive cultural and geographical changes and in several radically different languages; students need a voice with which to write in academia.

It might appear that the only thing all these projects have in common is that, in one way or another, they all involve studying language and its effects. Is discourse analysis, then, simply the study of language and its effects? It has been described that way. It has been suggested, for example, that "the name for the field 'discourse analysis' . . . says nothing more or other than the term 'linguistics': the study of language" (Tannen, 1989: 6). In a way, this is exactly correct: discourse analysis is the study of language, in the everyday sense in which most people use the term. What most people mean when they say "language" is talk, communication, discourse. (In formal language study, both descriptive and prescriptive, the term "language" is often used differently, to refer to structures or rules that are thought to underlie talk.) Even if discourse analysis is, basically, "the study of language," however, it is useful to try to specify what makes discourse analysis different from other approaches to language study. One way to do this is by asking ourselves what we can learn by thinking about what "discourse" is, and about what "analysis" is.

"Discourse"

To discourse analysts, "discourse" usually means actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language, although some define the term more broadly as "meaningful symbolic behavior" in any mode (Blommaert, 2005: 2). "Discourse" in this sense is usually a mass noun. Discourse analysts typically speak of *discourse* rather than *discourses*, the way we speak of other things for which we often use mass nouns, such as *music* ("some music" or "three pieces of music" rather than "three musics") or *information* ("the flow of information," "a great deal of information," rather than

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Language and Power

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Introduction: critical language study

'How do we recognize the shackles that tradition has placed upon us? For if we can recognize them, we are also able to break them.'

FRANZ BOAS

This book is about language and power, or more precisely about connections between language use and unequal relations of power, particularly in modern Britain. I have written it for two main purposes. The first is more theoretical: to help correct a widespread underestimation of the significance of language in the production, maintenance, and change of social relations of power. The second is more practical: to help increase consciousness of how language contributes to the domination of some people by others, because consciousness is the first step towards emancipation.

The more theoretical objective stems from my own academic background, which is in linguistics. Linguists, and especially those working in sociolinguistics (which is often said to deal with 'language in its social context') have had quite a lot to say about language and power, but they have not in my opinion done justice to the rich and complex interrelationships of language and power. There are for example many studies of 'standard' and 'nonstandard' social dialects, and of how the amount of prestige which attaches to such dialects depends on the power of their users. There have also been studies of the ways in which power is exercised in conversation and other forms of talk between people, though perhaps surprisingly few. These studies have generally set out to *describe* prevailing sociolinguistic conventions in terms of how they distribute power unequally; they have not set out to *explain* these conventions as the product of relations of power and struggles for power. The point is that sociolinguistic conventions have a dual relation to power: on the one hand they incorporate differences of power, on the other hand they arise out of – and give rise to – particular relations of power.

My main focus in this book will be on the second of these – on trying to explain existing conventions as the outcome of power relations and power

Discourse as social practice

This chapter gives a general picture of the place of language in society, which is developed in more specific terms in later chapters. It is most closely linked to Chapters 3 and 4, which elaborate this general picture in terms of, respectively, the relationship between language and power, and the relationship between language and ideology. Together, these three chapters present the main elements of the position which I am adopting in this book on the place of language in society: that language is centrally involved in power, and struggles for power, and that it is so involved through its ideological properties.

Let me summarize the major themes of Chapter 2 under its main section headings:

- **Language and discourse:** the conception of language we need for CLS is *discourse*, language as social practice determined by social structures.
- **Discourse and orders of discourse:** actual discourse is determined by socially constituted *orders of discourse*, sets of conventions associated with social institutions.
- **Class and power in capitalist society:** orders of discourse are ideologically shaped by power relations in social institutions and in society as a whole.
- **Dialectic of structures and practices:** discourse has effects upon social structures, as well as being determined by them, and so contributes to social continuity and social change.

An example

As I said above, this chapter will be discussing language and society in relatively general terms which will be made more specific in later chapters. It does not lend itself as easily to textual illustrations of points as Chapters 3

Language and discourse

This section develops the argument that, for CLS, the conception of language we need is that of *discourse*, language as a form of social practice. The

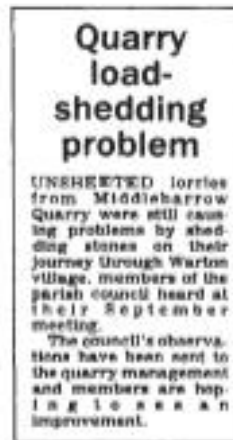
term *language* has been used in a number of different senses, including the two which linguists have standardly distinguished as *langue* and *parole* (as mentioned in Ch. 1). Neither of these is equivalent to *discourse*, but a discussion of them may help to clarify some of the various conceptions of language, and how *discourse* differs from others.

Langue and parole

The distinction between *langue* and *parole* was made famous in the work of the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. What I shall refer to is the way Saussure has generally been interpreted; his ideas are less clear and less simple than this might suggest, partly because published versions of his work were compiled posthumously by others.

Saussure regarded *langue* as a system or code which is prior to actual language use, which is the same for all members of a language community, and which is the *social* side of language as opposed to *parole*, which is individual. For Saussure, *parole*, what is actually said or written, is determined purely by individual choices, not socially at all. Linguistics, according to Saussure, is concerned primarily with *langue*, not *parole*.

Language use (*parole*) is, as Saussure was aware, characterized by extensive linguistic variation, and it is the account of this variation given by modern sociolinguistics which has done most to undermine the Saussurean concept of *parole*. Sociolinguistics has shown that this variation is not, as Saussure thought, a product of individual choice, but a product of social differentiation – language varies according to the social identities of people in interactions, their socially defined purposes, social setting, and so on. So



Text 3.3 Source: *Lancaster Guardian*, 12 September 1986

But what is the nature of the power relations in media discourse? We can say that producers exercise power over consumers in that they have sole producing rights and can therefore determine what is included and excluded, how events are represented, and (as we have seen) even the subject positions of their audiences. But who precisely are these 'producers'? Let us take a specific example to try to answer this. Text 3.3 is an article from my local newspaper.

Who is actually exercising power in this little article? Perhaps it is the journalist who wrote the piece. But it is well-known that journalists work under editorial control. So perhaps it is the editor, or rather more nebulously the newspaper itself, as a sort of institutional collective. But is the representation of the parish council meeting *only* the newspaper's, or is not the newspaper perhaps transmitting someone else's representation? And if so, does that not give a certain amount of power to that 'someone else'?

Let us generalize from this example, but keep the reporting of news particularly in mind. It is rather obvious that the people and organizations that the media use as *sources* in news reporting do not represent equally all social groupings in the population: Government ministers figure far more than unemployed people, and industrial managers or trade union officials figure far more than shopfloor workers. While the unequal influence of social groupings may be relatively clear in terms of who gets to be interviewed, for example, it is less clear but nevertheless highly significant in terms of whose *perspective* is adopted in reports. If, for instance, industrial disputes are systematically referred to as *trouble* or *disruption*, that is systematically building the employer's perspective into industrial news coverage.

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Edited by

*Deborah Schiffrin, Deborah Tannen,
and Heidi E. Hamilton*

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0 Introduction: What Is Critical Discourse Analysis?

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality.

Some of the tenets of CDA can already be found in the critical theory of the Frankfurt School before the Second World War (Agger 1992b; Rasmussen 1996). Its current focus on language and discourse was initiated with the “critical linguistics” that emerged (mostly in the UK and Australia) at the end of the 1970s (Fowler et al. 1979; see also Mey 1985). CDA has also counterparts in “critical” developments in sociolinguistics, psychology, and the social sciences, some already dating back to the early 1970s (Birnbaum 1971; Calhoun 1995; Fay 1987; Fox and Prilleltensky 1997; Hymes 1972; Ibáñez and Iñiguez 1997; Singh 1996; Thomas 1993; Turkel 1996; Wodak 1996). As is the case in these neighboring disciplines, CDA may be seen as a reaction against the dominant formal (often “asocial” or “uncritical”) paradigms of the 1960s and 1970s.

CDA is not so much a direction, school, or specialization next to the many other “approaches” in discourse studies. Rather, it aims to offer a different “mode” or “perspective” of theorizing, analysis, and application throughout the whole field. We may find a more or less critical perspective in such diverse areas as pragmatics, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, ethnography, or media analysis, among others.

Crucial for critical discourse analysts is the explicit awareness of their role in society. Continuing a tradition that rejects the possibility of a “value-free” science, they argue that science, and especially scholarly discourse, are inherently part of and influenced by social structure, and produced in social interaction. Instead of denying or ignoring such a relation between scholarship and society, they plead that such relations be studied and accounted for in their own right, and that scholarly practices

1.2 Power as control

A central notion in most critical work on discourse is that of power, and more specifically the *social power* of groups or institutions. Summarizing a complex philosophical and social analysis, we will define social power in terms of *control*. Thus, groups have

(more or less) power if they are able to (more or less) control the acts and minds of (members of) other groups. This ability presupposes a *power base* of privileged access to scarce social resources, such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge, information, "culture," or indeed various forms of public discourse and communication (of the vast literature on power, see, e.g., Lukes 1986; Wrong 1979).

Different *types of power* may be distinguished according to the various resources employed to exercise such power: the coercive power of the military and of violent men will rather be based on force, the rich will have power because of their money, whereas the more or less persuasive power of parents, professors, or journalists may be based on knowledge, information, or authority. Note also that power is seldom absolute. Groups may more or less control other groups, or only control them in specific situations or social domains. Moreover, dominated groups may more or less resist, accept, condone, comply with, or legitimate such power, and even find it "natural."

The power of dominant groups may be integrated in laws, rules, norms, habits, and even a quite general consensus, and thus take the form of what Gramsci called "hegemony" (Gramsci 1971). Class domination, sexism, and racism are characteristic examples of such hegemony. Note also that power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, but may be enacted in the myriad of taken-for-granted actions of everyday life, as is typically the case in the many forms of everyday sexism or racism (Essed 1991). Similarly, not all members of a powerful group are always more powerful than all members of dominated groups: power is only defined here for groups as a whole.

For our analysis of the relations between discourse and power, thus, we first find that access to specific forms of discourse, e.g. those of politics, the media, or science, is itself a power resource. Secondly, as suggested earlier, action is controlled by our minds. So, if we are able to influence people's minds, e.g. their knowledge or opinions, we indirectly may control (some of) their actions, as we know from persuasion and manipulation.



Discourse
and Context
A Sociocognitive Approach

Teun A. van Dijk

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If that were the case we should still need a term to describe the combination of discourse and its relevant social environment, and I shall occasionally use the term *communicative or interactional episode* for such situated communicative events (see *Society and Discourse*; see also Forgas, 1979). Episodes, thus, are complex fragments of the everyday lives of social members, consisting of talk, text or other social interaction, and the relevant properties of the social situation, such as time, place, social roles and relations, goals and knowledge. Note that the notion of "situation" is often used more or less in the same sense as "episode."

Another way to theorize and define the relation between "text" and "context" is to take discourse (talk, etc.) *as part of the context*. In that case, contexts as defined (that is, as mental models) are models of communicative episodes, and not just of the situational environment of discourse. We shall see later that there are good reasons to assume that discourse, as action, is part of contexts, in that participants indexically and reflexively also represent their own ongoing action. However, in *that case* we again need a special term to denote the situational "environment" of discourse, without the discourse itself, and we may then use the term "situation" to denote such an environment, as we also do in the broadly used expression "situated interaction." In other words, in this "inclusive" perspective on contexts, discourse and interaction take place "in" a communicative situation, where discourse and situation are distinct.

Our predicament is that a theoretically sound terminology does not square well with broadly used informal terminology and intuitions. I therefore decided to use theoretical terms that remain close to their informal uses. Hence, I can summarize my terminology provisionally as follows (most of these terms need to be examined later in much more theoretical detail in the relevant chapters of this book as well as in *Society and Discourse*). We can distinguish between an *inclusive* notion of context (context-I), that is, one including the mental representation of ongoing verbal interaction, and an *exclusive one* (context-E), that is, a mental model of the situational environment of such interaction. We then provisionally have the following abbreviated working definitions to be made explicit in the theory:

social episode = social interaction + social situation
 social situation = relevant social environment of social interaction
 communicative episode = discourse + communicative situation
 communicative situation = relevant environment of discourse
 context-I = subjective mental model of communicative episode
 context-E = subjective mental model of the situational environment

4 Context and discourse

My claim is that context permeates language, that contextual assumptions affect how we understand language, and that contexts of speech have to be better understood to develop realistic theories of language and of language learning. (Susan Ervin-Tripp, 1996: 21)

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the main function of contexts, namely how they enable and constrain the production and comprehension of text and talk. I shall start with a conceptual analysis of the possible relationships between context and discourse. These may be described in many terms, such as “influence,” “control,” “mapping,” “manifestation,” “expression” and “indexing”, among others. Then, I shall examine some of the crucial notions that are often used to describe the product of this contextual influence on discourse, such as style, register, genre, variation and related notions. Finally, I shall review some major dimensions of discourse that are thus systematically controlled by context structures, and conversely, how such discourse dimensions may in turn influence the context models of participants, that is, their interpretation of the ongoing communicative event.

Since much of this discussion presupposes vast fields of earlier research, especially in sociolinguistics, I shall focus particularly on the contextual control of *discourse structures*, assuming that the influence of context on grammar, that is, on phonology, prosody, syntax and the lexicon, is well known. Although contemporary sociolinguistics, stylistics and ethnography generally also work with natural discourse data, much of the analytical focus has been on subtle details of expression, such as pronunciation, intonation, pronominalization, lexicalization and syntax, a limitation repeatedly pointed out by Macaulay (1999, 2002, 2005a, 2005b). There are relatively few studies that examine the contextual constraints on, for instance, cohesion and coherence, topic choice, news or argumentation schemata, news headline style, speech acts, turn-taking, or the strategies of persuasion and manipulation, among a host of other discourse properties.

Speakers can be identified and distinguished not only by the precise sounds of their vowels or the way they pronounce post-vocalic *-r*, as we know from classical work in sociolinguistics. Variation and style, defined as a function of context features, obviously comprise much more than such variation of expression. For instance, if we compare the news reports about the “same” event in London’s broadsheet newspaper *The Times* and tabloid *Sun*, we tend to describe the differences between the newspapers in terms of “style.” These differences are not typically the ones we find in traditional sociolinguistic studies of regional or class-based variation, or different “ways of speaking” (such as use of formal versus casual language). First of all, they are differences between newspapers and not individual speakers (as group members), and second they pertain to a complex set of discourse properties, e.g., printed layout, photos, news report structure, headlines, lexical choice, topic choice and rhetorical structures, among others (Jucker, 1992). This chapter will show how such typical discourse structures also vary with the structures of communicative situations as defined by the context models of the participants.

There are many reasons why there is much less research on the socially based variation of discourse. First of all, especially for spoken discourse, it is very difficult to observe, tape and transcribe large amounts of comparable discourses in their “natural” situations. This means that we seldom have quantitative data that allow reliable comparisons and generalizations on how one situational parameter (for instance, gender or social class) systematically associates with specific discourse features (see, however, Macaulay, 2005a, 2005b).

Second, the tradition in sociolinguistics so far has been to focus on smaller, grammatical phenomena, and not on discourse structures “beyond the sentence,” so that as yet few research projects have been systematically collecting the necessary data (Macaulay, 2002, 2005). It is only recently that studies of language variation, style and register in sociolinguistics have also paid attention to specific discourse structures.

Third, if contexts are defined in terms of mental models that are by definition unique, it is very hard to observe and record data that are comparable and hence analyzable across contexts, or by holding contexts invariable, as one would try to do in a laboratory. This is merely a slightly more sophisticated way of saying that communicative situations and their influences on talk and text are complex and variable.

For instance, if we wanted to know whether women tell more stories about their children than men – a typical result of several studies of the gendered nature of storytelling – we would be likely to abstract from many other dimensions of the social situation dimensions that may be relevant and that may also produce much variation in the data. Thus, we might ask whether this

...ntinued

Moslem, Christian

between the Christian and Moslem halves of Beirut and cut off access to the city's port and international airports, agreed to suspend their protests temporarily pending mediation by the United Nations. The deal was reached yesterday.

Earlier Wednesday, gunmen attacked and blew up part of a building in West Beirut housing the Libyan Embassy, formally known as the Libyan People's Bureau. The main Sader Brigades, claiming responsibility for the attack, reportedly killed a group of men and women. They overpowered Lebanese and Libyan security forces. Aerial attacks were also reported. The Red Cross has been able to account for only 200. The Red Cross teams who visited the hostages in recent weeks said they were being detained by both Moslem and Christian militias.

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An anonymous caller told

(Continued on Page 2)

NEWS AS DISCOURSE

Names Group to Get Hostages Released

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receive Libyan emissaries only if they disclose the fate of Imam Sader.

President Amin Gemayel and the cabinet met at the presidential palace in Baabda, a Christian suburb overlooking the capital. The meeting was the cabinet's first in Baabda since its formation 10 weeks ago. Previously, it convened at the presidential residence in the mountain resort of Bikfaya about 100 kilometers (about 20 kilometers) east. Moslem ministers led by the prime minister, Abdel Karim Abd al-Majid, were citing security as a reason for the move.

They dropped their rest in a few days, after the cabinet applied a security plan around Beirut that opened cross-frontiers between the Moslem and Christian sectors. Mr. Karim and Moslem leaders of the

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Discourse analysis is an ambiguous concept. In the previous section, it was used to denote a new discipline, one that studies text and talk or language use from all possible perspectives. In this section, discourse analysis denotes a theoretical and methodological approach to language and language use. In that sense, it is also defined by the object of analysis, namely discourses, texts, messages, talk, dialogue, or conversation. Linguistics in general, and especially grammars, usually focused only on abstract sentence structures, and considered discourse as an aspect of actual language use. This distinction between theories of grammar, accounting for the abstract underlying rules of language as a system and theories of actual language use is misleading, however. Sociolinguistics and pragmatics in the past decade, for instance, showed that many properties of what was usually considered to be language use also had a systematic nature, which could be explained by rules. This particularly holds true for the description of discourse. Much like sentences, discourse may exhibit structures that have a systematic, rule-governed nature, whereas—again much like sentences—discourse also may display properties that are very much ad hoc, individual, and context-bound. This means that if we want to distinguish between more abstract, grammatical structures and various properties of language use, we can do so both for sentences and for discourses. In earlier work, therefore, we proposed to distinguish systematically between the formal object text, on the one hand, and actually occurring discourse(s), on the other hand (van Dijk, 1972, 1977). Here, we won't make this distinction, but simply use text and discourse interchangeably. However, it is further understood that text or discourse may have general, abstract, or context-free properties, which might be accounted for by some kind of discourse grammars and properties that are variable across different contexts (situations, speakers, etc.) in the same culture. Of course, in a strictly empirical theory of language and language use, such a distinction is merely a metatheoretical artifact. In actual usage, we only have cognitive representations of discourse rules and strategies of their application in discourse production and comprehension. In other words, in a cognitive or sociological approach to discourse, the system-use distinction may be less relevant.

of discourse analysis, including text linguistics, narrative analysis, stylistics or rhetoric. In the next chapter we address this textual dimension of the news.

Yet, this is only part of the story. Discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary discipline. It is also interested in the analysis of the various contexts of discourse, that is, in the cognitive processes of production and reception and in the sociocultural dimensions of language use and communication. Therefore, the second major question to be answered deals with the processes involved in the production, the understanding and the uses of news in the context of mass-mediated communication. In particular, we are interested in the complex relationships between news text and context: How do cognitive and social constraints determine the structures of news and how are the understanding and the uses of news influenced by its textual structures? Obviously, our approach to news is especially relevant for mass communication research if we are able to specify such relationships. If not, our analysis would at most contribute to a new, and more explicit content analysis of media messages. Although this would certainly be a legitimate aim, we would be unable to place such an analysis within a more interesting explanatory and theoretical framework. We also want to know why news has its particular structure and what role such structures play in mass communication.

A single book cannot possibly answer all of these questions. Our aims must be more restricted. A single monograph could be dedicated to, for instance, the style of news discourse or to the uses of news by the readers. Therefore, we focus on topics that have been neglected in earlier research, that is on news structures and their cognitive processing, both in production and in understanding. For instance, we propose a partial theory of so-called news schemata, that is, of the conventional forms and categories of news articles in the press. From a cognitive point of view, we deal with the memory processes involved in the understanding, representation, and retrieval of news events by the journalist in news gathering and writing and by the reader in processes of reconstructing news events in knowledge and belief updating. This allows us to make explicit the well-known role of news values and ideologies in the production and understanding of news. Since such values and ideologies are also inherently social, we thus hope to build a bridge between the psychological and the sociological studies of news. Indeed, the psychological dimension of our study is not merely cognitive. Rather, it should be called 'sociocognitive'. In this respect, it is also an application and further extension of current developments in the new field of social cognition. At the same time, it provides a more explicit basis for actual work on news production in microsociology, e.g., from an eth-

Text and Context

The major aim of discourse analysis, then, is to produce explicit and systematic, descriptions of units of language use that we have called discourse. Such

descriptions have two main dimensions, which we may simply call textual and contextual. Textual dimensions account for the structures of discourse at various levels of description. Contextual dimensions relate these structural descriptions to various properties of the context, such as cognitive processes and representations or sociocultural factors. Thus, structurally, language systems feature various pronominal forms of address, which may be different for different languages. But an aspect of the communicative context, such as the degree of formality of the situation or the familiarity of the speech partners, may determine whether a more formal or a more informal form should be chosen (such as French "vous" instead of "tu"). Cognitively, there may be other constraints in discourse, such as the use of full definite descriptions instead of pronouns in those cases where memory processes of retrieval require more than just the information from a pronoun.

Historical Background: Rhetoric

Historically, discourse analysis can be traced to classical rhetoric. More than 2,000 years ago, rhetoricians like Aristotle specified the various strictures of discourse and indicated their effectiveness in processes of persuasion in public contexts. From a large body of normative concepts, however, the legacy of rhetoric in our age has often been restricted to the study of figures of speech, which can still be found in traditional textbooks of speech and communication. Only in the 1960s was it realized that classical rhetoric had more to offer. Rhetoric was redefined as new rhetoric and began to play a role in the development of structural analyses of discourse, for example, in literary studies (Lausberg, 1960; Barthes, 1970; Corbett, 1971). Given the focus of rhetoric on persuasion, however, not only speech style but also argumentative strictures were addressed in these contemporary developments of rhetoric (Kahane, 1971).

Pragmatics: Speech Acts

The levels of description mentioned thus far are those familiar in linguistic grammar. In the last decade, and more or less parallel with the development of discourse analysis and sociolinguistics, it has been shown that we also need a pragmatic component of description. Here, we do not merely describe the forms or the meaning (or reference) of verbal utterances but rather the social act we accomplish by using such an utterance in a specific situation. Such acts are called speech acts (Searle, 1969). Promising, accusing, congratulating, and asserting are examples of such speech acts. These are social acts accomplished by the use of words, that is, by verbal utterances or parts of discourse. A pragmatic description then specifies what kind of speech acts exist in a given culture and the rules that determine under what conditions such speech acts are appropriate relative to the context in which they are used. Since news discourse nearly exclusively consists of assertions (and not of promises or threats), a pragmatic description in the strict sense would not yield much more than the conditions necessary for the appropriate accomplishment of assertions.

From Micro- to Macrostructures

We are now able to characterize three major aspects of discourse: sentence forms, meanings, and speech acts. Indeed, a theory of language is basically aimed at descriptions of these three components and their interrelations. There are, however, other aspects of discourse that cannot simply be defined in terms of the usual syntax, semantics, or pragmatics as applied mainly to isolated sentences. That is, we seem to operate only on what may be called a microlevel of description: sounds, words, sentence patterns, and their meanings. We also need a description at a more comprehensive, global level, that is of whole parts of discourse, or of entire discourses. For instance, discourses are usually said to have a theme or topic, and this semantic aspect cannot simply be accounted for in terms of the semantics of isolated sentences. Thus, we need some kind of macrosemantics, which deal with such global meanings to allow us to describe the meanings of whole paragraphs, sections, or chapters of written discourse. Similarly, we also need some kind of macrosyntax to characterize the overall forms of a discourse, which *we* will call schemata or superstructures. Stories or conversations have such overall organizational patterns, consisting—just as in sen-

tence syntax—of a number of conventional categories, such as various forms of Opening or Closing a discourse, a Setting in story, or Headlines in news discourse. These overall schematic forms are filled with the overall, macrostructural meanings or topics of a discourse. The category of headline in a news discourse, thus, is merely an empty form, in which we may insert different meanings (as long as this meaning is a topic or summary of the meaning of the whole text). Similarly, a pragmatic description may be given such a macrocomponent, accounting for larger sequences of speech acts, or for the global or macrospeech act accomplished by a whole textual utterance. A news discourse as a whole may have the function of a macroassertion, and an advertisement the function of a macroadvice or macrooffer. A ransom note would typically be a macrothreat (van Dijk, 1980a, 1981a).

We now have form, meaning/reference and action, both at the local or microlevel and at the global or macrolevel. And just as forms, meanings, and action are systematically related, so are related microlevels and macrolevels. For instance, the meanings of whole text parts or entire texts are derived from the local meanings of words and sentences, which is a fundamental principle of semantics. This derivation takes place by macrorules, which will be discussed when we deal with the thematic structures of news discourse.

Rhetoric

Another dimension of discourse, rhetoric, deals with both formulation and context. Earlier, we saw that both classical and modern rhetoric deals with the persuasive dimension of language use and, more specifically, with the account of those properties of discourse that can make communication more persuasive. These rhetorical structures of discourse, featuring for instance the well-known figures of speech, are also based on grammatical structures but are not themselves linguistic or grammatical. Thus, an alliteration presupposes identity of initial phonemes or morphemes, parallelism requires identity of syntactic patterns, and metaphor may involve partial meaning identity and referential identity of expressions. But the transformations involved, such as deletion, repetition, substitution, or permutation, are not as such grammatical. They do not express differences of meaning, nor do they always indicate differences in social context. Rather, the speaker uses them to enhance the organization, and hence the attention, the storage, and retrieval of textual information by the listener/reader. Whereas style is a necessary property of discourse in context, rhetorical structures are optional. Note that rhetoric is often understood in a broader sense as the discipline that deals with all aspects of persuasive speaking or writing. In that sense, it becomes nearly identical with at least a large part of discourse analysis. Here, we use rhetoric in a somewhat more restricted sense, namely as the theoretical subcomponent of discourse analysis that explicates very specific, rhetorical structures only. Like syntax, semantics or pragmatics, such a rhetoric also has a more empirical dimension, which studies the social psychological aspects of persuasion based on the use of specific rhetorical structures. Similarly, overall formal structures such as those of stories or news discourse are not called rhetorical, as such, but require description in terms of schematic superstructures. To put it simply, a well-formed story is not necessarily a persuasively effective story.

Thematic Structure

The topics of news discourse are not simply a list; rather, they form a hierarchical structure. In our analysis of two examples in the previous section, this structure has not been dealt with explicitly. How exactly are the topics organized in an overall topical or thematic structure? Theoretically, we only assumed that a higher level macroproposition can be derived from a sequence of lower-level macropropositions or micropropositions. This means that the macroproposition is entailed by the propositions from which it is derived. The ordering of macropropositions at each level is implicitly defined by the ordering of expressed propositions at the lower level(s), that is by the order of propositions and sentences in the text. This, however, may lead to problems for the representation of news discourse, where the ordering of the text is defined rather by relevance of topics (first, main topics come first) than by some logical order of topics. In the news item about Shultz and East Timor, for instance, the information about Shultz's critique is given before the information about the letter from members of Congress, although we may assume that this letter preceded the critique of Shultz. In other words, antecedents of news events may well be expressed later in news discourse, compared to their semantic position with respect to the main news event.

Thus, macrostructures, much as any semantic structure, may be further organized by a number of fixed categories, including Causes, Antecedents, or Consequences. A simple thematic structure for the Shultz/East Timor item, then, could be represented as in Figure 2.3.

In this simple schema we have indicated that macropropositions may have different semantic functions, whether intensionally or extensionally. That is, the protests of Shultz are conditioned by the letter from members of

Thematic Realization: From Macrostructure to Microstructure

Topics can be topics of text only when they are actually realized, directly or indirectly, through propositions expressed in the respective sentences of the text, that is, in episodes (van Dijk, 1982a). Whereas the derivation of topics seems to simulate the understanding processes of the reader, the analysis of the reverse process seems to simulate how a given topic is expressed, detailed, or elaborated by the speaker or writer. The reader must infer topics, given detailed input from headlines, leads, and respective sentences; whereas the author already knows at least the main or first topics and must express, signal, and fill them. This section analyzes the structural nature of the process in terms of textual organization.

One of the most conspicuous and typical features of topic realization or elaboration in news discourse is its installment character. That is, each topic is delivered in parts, not as a whole, as is the case in other discourse types. This structural characteristic is caused by the top-down principle of relevance organization in news. This principle says that news discourse is organized so that the most important or relevant information is put in the most prominent position, both in the text as a whole, and in the sentences. This means that for each topic, the most important information is presented first. When the important information of other topics has been expressed, earlier topics are reintroduced with lower-level details. Thus, instead of a left-right realization of topics from a thematic structure, a top-down realization occurs, if this top-down organization of general to particular also coincides

Textual Superstructures

The overall meaning (macrostructure) of discourse has more than its own organizing principles. It also needs some kind of overall syntax, which defines the possible forms in which topics or themes can be inserted and ordered in the actual text. That is, we need at a global level what has been customary in traditional sentence grammars, where semantic representations are mapped onto syntactic structures of sentences. This global form of discourse can be defined in terms of a rule-based schema. Such a schema consists of a series of hierarchically ordered categories, which may be specific for different discourse types and conventionalized and hence different in various societies or cultures.

Let us give some well-known examples of discourse schemata. Stories, for instance, have a narrative schema, consisting of conventional categories such as Summary, Setting, Complication, Resolution and Coda (Labov & Waletzky, 1967; Labov, 1972c). This means that stories may begin with a sequence of sentences that, as a whole, functions as the summary of the story, followed by a sequence of sentences that functions as a setting for the events of the story. Such a Setting category may contain information about the initial situation (state of affairs, time, place), in which events or actions may take place or information about main participants and their properties, and so on. In other words, there are parts of a text that have a specific function and that require specific meaning information. A Summary for instance must contain the macrostructure of a story.

Everyday conversations also have schemata. These may also be functionally analyzed in global units that may be conventionally categorized. Many conversations, for instance, begin with some kind of Greetings exchange, and may be terminated by a sequence of Closing turns and Leave-taking formulas (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). Scientific discourse, such as journal articles or lectures, may also have a conventional form, which often features an argumentative schema: a number of Premises followed by a Conclusion. Psychological articles may even have a fixed, normative form, which requires an Introduction or Theory section, an Experimental section that itself has subcategories such as Design, Materials, Subjects, and a final Discussion section (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). In this way, many discourse types in our culture have a more or less fixed schematic organization. Lan-

Superstructures

Theoretically, we account tin- discourse schemata in terms of so-called superstructures (Van Dijk, 1980a). These are global structures of discourse, defined by specific superstructure categories and rules, in a similar manner as for stories. The necessary link with other discourse structures is established through semantic macrostructures (topics). That is, in order to assign a global form or schema to a text, we have to relate it to a global meaning that can fill this form or schema. Thus, each superstructure category is associated with a macroproposition (topic) from the semantic macrostructure. This category assigns a specific discourse function to the macroproposition and consequently to the sequence of sentences or propositions summarized by that macroproposition. A narrative category like Setting, for instance, may be filled by one or more macropropositions that, together, describe the setting of the story. This link between superstructure and macrostructure enables us to formulate specific mutual constraints. In a Setting only information that describes the initial situation and participants may be inserted. The Complication and the Resolution in a narrative schema also require specific information. Once we have linked the overall form with the overall content of the text, we also have a link with the microstructures of the actual text, namely, via the macrorules or specification rules. Each macroproposition is related to a sequence of propositions, which in turn is related to a sequence of clauses and sentences. This also means that the schema determines how the topics of a text could or should be ordered and, hence, how sequences and sentences should appear in the text. Finally, local coherence rules will then address the detailed meaning relations between sentences (see The Microstructures of News Discourse). Figure 2.4 presents a summary of this theoretical approach:

In this simplified schema, S1, S2, . . . , represent superstructure categories; M1, M2, . . . represent macrostructure categories; p1, p2, . . . represent propositions, which are finally mapped on an ordered sequence of sentences. For simplicity, we have assumed that each superstructure category is filled with only one macroproposition. Of course, each category may be filled with a complex set of macropropositions, that is, by a fragment of the

Summary: Headline and Lead

Intuitively, a few news discourse categories seem to impose themselves. Each news item in the press has a Headline for example, and many have a Lead, whether marked off by special printing type or not. We also have an elementary rule for them: Headline precedes Lead, and together they precede the rest of the news item. Their structural function is also clear: Together they express the major topics of the text. That is, they function as an initial summary. Hence, as in natural stories, we may also introduce the category Summary, dominating Headline and Lead. The semantic constraint is obvious: Headline + Lead summarize the news text and express the semantic macrostructure. Notice that the news categories we discuss here are formal, schematic categories. Thus, the Headline category in a news schema should not simply be identified with the physical headline (which we write with lower case initial) as it is printed in large bold type. Headline merely defines a special sequence in a news text, in which variable global content (a topic) may be inserted. The formulation of this content in a sentence and the expression of this sentence in concrete words realized in specific (bold, large) type lead to the expression of the Headline category in an actual headline. Such an actual headline, for instance, may consist of several parts (decks or banks), such as a main headline, a superheadline (a kicker, snapper, or eyebrow; Garst & Bernstein, 1982), and a subheadline. Similarly, as we suggested before, Leads may be expressed in separately and boldly printed leads or may coincide with the first, thematical sentence of the text. Conversely, the typical expression markers of a news category may of course yield specific signals that may be used by the reader to infer that a specific category is being used. First position, on top, possibly across several columns, large and bold type, etc. are, for instance, the properties of headlines that signal the schema category of Headline. In other languages and cultures, such as Japanese or Arabic, these signals may be somewhat different, but the category of Headline is the same.

attitudes (after all, what is important is ideologically bound), macrostructures and their expressions—e.g., in the headlines—may be subjective and biased. An explicit analysis of the thematic organization of news reports, in terms of macrostructure rides of inference or reduction, allows us to assess such biases, for instance when low level topics are upgraded to main topics and even expressed in the headlines, or conversely. In other words, the definition of the situation as it is provided by the thematic macrostructure of a news report may be vastly different from alternative definitions. Macrostructures, thus, are systematically related to the constraints and conditions of news production: Summaries of news events figure everywhere in newsmaking, as we shall see shortly.

Global meanings or content (topics) also require a conventional or canonical form (like sentence meaning needs syntax for its organization). For different types of text or talk, therefore, each culture has its own global categories and rules to organize discourse or communicative events. The best known examples are the conventional structure of stories (setting, complication, resolution, etc.), or that of arguments (premises, conclusion). Texts that occur frequently and/or are processed routinely within institutions, such as news discourse, often have such a canonical pattern. Therefore, we introduced the notion of a news schema, featuring the usual categories that provide the different functions of information in news reports: Summary (Headline and Lead), Main Events, Backgrounds (Context and History), Consequences (Consequent events or actions and Verbal Reactions), and Comments (Evaluation and Prediction). Some of these categories are obligatory (Summary and Main Event), whereas others are optional. Apart from organizing the global content (themes, macrostructure) of news reports, they have cognitive and social functions in news production and in news understanding and memorization. For instance, journalists may explicitly search for background to a main news event and explicitly ask for, or select from, a wire, the Verbal Reactions of a major news actor.

Characteristic of both macrostructures and superstructures of news is their discontinuous, installment structure: Topics and their schematic categories are realized step by step throughout the news text. The general principle is that of relevance: The most relevant information (from top to bottom) comes first, followed by lower levels, and finally, details of each respective schematic category (from summary, via main events, through backgrounds to comments). Hence, an important verbal reaction may appear before a less important detail of the main event. This relevance structure is intricately linked with news production strategies, the structure of models journalists have of news events, as well as with properties of reading news such as skimming.

MACROSTRUCTURES

An Interdisciplinary Study of Global Structures
in Discourse, Interaction, and Cognition

Teun A. van Dijk

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In several disciplines of the humanities and the social sciences, various notions of 'global' units and structures play an important role. In the linguistic theory of discourse, for instance, terms like 'topic, "theme, "gist,' or 'upshot' require explicit description. Similarly, in conversation analysis, we must explain what the 'point' of a dialogue is. In microsociology, concerned with the analysis of interaction in social contexts, it seems relevant to account for the fact that action and interaction can be interpreted at several 'levels' in terms of 'global actions.' Finally, in cognitive psychology and artificial intelligence, it has appeared that processing of discourse and interaction (e.g., in production, comprehension, and storage in memory) cannot properly be accounted for without the global organization of complex information.

In this book these various global structures are accounted for in terms of macrostructures. Macrostructures are higher-level semantic or conceptual structures that organize the 'local' microstructures of discourse, interaction, and their cognitive processing. They are distinguished from other global structures of a more schematic nature, which we call superstructures. These are, so to speak, the global 'form' of the macrostructural 'content.'

The theory of macrostructures sketched in this book is the result of research carried out during the last 10 years in the domains of literary theory, text grammar, the general theory of discourse, pragmatics, and the cognitive psychology of discourse processing. This research has been reported in many papers and books in which the theory of macrostructures, first of discourse and later also of speech act sequences and interaction, was gradually

Initially, the social scientists will have access only to this kind of intuition, of their own and of their social coparticipants, and the ways it is expressed. There is a more general methodological principle that we shall follow in this book, and it is related to the one indicated above. Whatever the more specific linguistic or sociological concepts of global structures may be, we shall assume that they have a cognitive basis. Thus, language use and behavior may be accounted for in independent theories, but these theories will ultimately be based on a theory of how language users and social participants perceive, interpret, know, memorize, evaluate, plan, produce, etc., their discourses and interactions. In other words, our social behavior including our communicative verbal interaction-is determined by our interpretations and representations of social "reality." Later chapters show that global structures are the result of very fundamental cognitive principles operating in the ways we process this kind of highly complex information from the social situation.

This fundamentally cognitive approach to the study of global structures should be qualified. Although the basic principles involved in complex information processing are of a cognitive nature, at the same time language use and interaction require an account of their social properties. Thus, the cognitive processes and representations involved do not arbitrarily vary over individuals but are in turn determined by (our knowledge of) social interaction and social structure, in a similar way as cognition develops as a function of biophysiological properties of the organism. Hence, when speaking of the foundations of language use and interaction, we should use the notion of social cognition to account for the fact that our interpretations and representations in this area are essentially conventional.² The categories and rules we manipulate are developed under the constraints of all kinds of communicative interaction and cooperation. We have justified beliefs that most other participants use similar categories and rules in most social situations, and such beliefs will even be used to normalize our cognitive

Strategies of Discourse Comprehension

Teun A. van Dijk

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6.5.2. A Macroanalysis of the *Newsweek* Text

The role of macrostructure formation for news discourse is absolutely crucial, more so than for stories which we read for our entertainment or for conversations (to which we turn in the next section). The general communicative function of news is to create or update situation models: We want to know new things about situations about which we have heard or read before, or about new situations, often linked with or similar to previous ones. The news input, however, is vast, and we need to select: Macrostructure formation is the primary mechanism enabling us to do so.

Newspaper discourse is organized in such a way that it presents powerful cues to the reader for the inference of macro structures: Headlines, initial position, bold print, lead or initial thematic sentences—all express the macrostructures of the text, as intended by the journalist. Of course, each reader may apply his or her own strategies of macrostructure formation and the resultant macrostructure may be rather different from the one expressed in the headlines or leads of the newspaper text. But this will presuppose specific knowledge, interests, and goals. The average newspaper reader will for the majority of news articles just follow the cues as presented by the text.

Our *Newsweek* text (see front endpapers) exhibits some of the features mentioned above. It has a headline: Guatemala: No Choices, and a (metaphorical) initial position thematic sentence, followed by a high-level first paragraph describing the general political situation in Guatemala as compared to that in El Salvador. We may assume that the reader knows the general schema of news discourse (to which we will turn in the next chapter) and constructs his or her first macropropositions on the basis of these cues: title, initial position sentence, and first paragraph. These, therefore, are expected to present the most important, summarizing information, which will be specified progressively in the body of the article.

Headlines or titles, as in our example, present some information about the relevant macrostructure, but this information will often be partial or vague. In our text, the reader may safely infer that the text will be about Guatemala, and therefore that Guatemala will be the major discourse referent of the text. However, the expression no choice is vague, and would lead only to a macropredicate such as 'there is a problem (in G)', or 'there is a predicament'. We have seen that the first sentence of the text does not yield very much more than the overall interpretation that Guatemala is compared with El Salvador, and that the political situation in Guatemala is a 'black and white' one. This calls for specification in more concrete political terms, and these are indeed provided in the next sentences.

In addition to these textual cues, many readers will also have an existing model about the political situation in Guatemala which will play a role in the process of macrostructure formation. The reader's opinions, beliefs, and ideology are also

Discourse
and
Knowledge

A Sociocognitive Approach

Teun A. van Dijk

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- Unlike psycholinguistics, more closely related to dominant sentence linguistics, **cognitive and educational psychology** soon broadened its scope from the mental processing of words and sentences to the experimental study of text production and comprehension. It thus was able to explain for the first time how language users (despite their limited working memory) are able to strategically produce, understand and store and recall complex discourse, establish local and global coherence and activate and apply knowledge in the construction of mental models that represent the subjective interpretation of discourse.

After these initial developments, mostly between 1964 and 1974, Discourse Studies later spread to or merged with studies of text and talk in sociolinguistics, pragmatics, discursive psychology and communication studies. Of the social sciences, only political science has been quite impervious to this general discursive turn.

The methods of Discourse Studies range from the earlier ethnographic, grammatical and experimental studies of the structures and processing of text and talk, to contemporary approaches as multimodal semiotic studies, computer simulation and the automatic analysis of vast text corpora, as well as participant observation, or any other method of the social sciences. *Critical Discourse Studies* more specifically focuses on the role of discourse in the social reproduction of power abuse, for instance in sexist or racist discourse.

Despite various attempts towards a broad, multidisciplinary integration, for instance in my own earlier work on racism, ideology and context, there remains a regrettable gap in discourse studies between asocial cognitive (often experimental) approaches on the one hand, and (often anticognitivist) social approaches, especially in conversation and interaction studies, on the other hand.

Relevant for this book is the fact that despite the fundamental role of knowledge in discourse, discourse studies outside of cognitive psychology have paid very little attention to the role of knowledge at all levels of text and talk, especially beyond the information structure of sentences. This book is a first integrated attempt to remedy this lack of discourse epistemics in Discourse Studies.

1.5 The triangulation of discourse, cognition and society

The broader theoretical framework of this multidisciplinary study, as well as of my earlier work on racism, ideology and context, consists in a triangulation of discourse, cognition and society. Discourse is thus defined as a form of social interaction in society and at the same time as the expression and reproduction of social cognition. Local and global social structures condition discourse but they do so through the cognitive mediation of the socially shared knowledge, ideologies and personal mental models of social members as they subjectively define communicative events as context models.

We are thus able to account both for the social, political and cultural aspects of discourse and for the subjective ways individual social actors produce and reproduce social representations as well as social structure. As we have done before for the study of ideology, this integration of a structural and an interactional approach to knowledge and discourse may be seen as one of the ways the notorious macro–micro gap can be bridged in the social sciences.

to 'the taxpayer.' More specifically, apart from their general or generic knowledge of the world, readers are also assumed by the journalist to know about more concrete situations, such as the fact that there are asylum seekers in the UK in the first place.

Besides all this presupposed *old* knowledge, the *news* report is also about *new* knowledge, that is, knowledge the journalist assumes the readers did not yet have. It is precisely one of the functions of news reports to provide information so that readers can *update* their knowledge about current events in the world in general and their own country in particular. This new(s) knowledge is summarized in the complex headline, namely that the (British) taxpayers pay £100,000 a day for failed asylum seekers, and then further detailed in the rest of the article.

This book is about these and many other ways language users manage knowledge in text and talk. It deals with the kind of general, sociocultural knowledge journalists or readers, among many other language users, must have in order to be able to write or read and understand a news report, to engage in a conversation, to teach a class or to participate in professional meetings as well as in many other genres of discourse.

Before we are even able to study such specific uses of knowledge in the production or reception of news articles, conversations or textbooks, we shall start in the next chapter with the more fundamental issue of the very definition of knowledge as some kind of belief, and how it can be distinguished from other beliefs. Thus, whereas some information in the *Telegraph* article may be about facts as communicated by reliable sources, other information may be more speculative, for instance that asylum seekers may stay indefinitely in the country. In that case, we usually call such beliefs *opinions* and not *knowledge*.

On the other hand, beginning with the headline, the news report is replete with numbers, which seem to provide objective information from reliable official sources that may increase the credibility of the journalist and the newspaper. Notions such as objectivity, reliability, credibility are all related to knowledge, knowledge sources and people who know, and hence also need further analysis.

Similarly, we may want to inquire *why* specific information is spread (or not) in public discourse and why precisely the *negative* information that asylum seekers cost the taxpayer a lot of money is focused on in the article. Indeed, does the newspaper always mention for any public expenditure that it is a heavy burden for the taxpayers? Also, there are many other relevant facts about asylum seekers that are *not* mentioned or detailed in the article, such as daily discrimination and other hardships they suffer in 'the country.' At least for some readers, such daily Halaman 12 / 409 beliefs, especially about ethnically different Others, may be called stereotypes, prejudices and ideologies. Thus,

The capacity to spread negative information about specific outgroups among hundreds of thousands of readers is a very important power resource of the mass media, so that we also need to pay attention to the relation between knowledge and power: who has more, and who has less knowledge, defined as a symbolic resource, and what types of knowledge are being acquired, sold or otherwise provided by the mass media, elite groups and other powerful groups and organizations (Van Dijk, 2008b, 2011a).

We have mentioned above that for readers to be able to understand this news article, they need to activate and apply vast amounts of knowledge of the world. Such understanding is usually studied in terms of mental representations and processes of language users involved as participants in communicative situations. Within the framework of the cognitive psychology of discourse, we therefore need to review what is known today about the nature and organization of knowledge in memory and how it is acquired, stored, activated and applied during discourse processing.

A crucial aspect of this use of knowledge in discourse is the establishment of local and global coherence, one of the fundamental properties of all text and talk. More generally, if speakers and writers assume that recipients share general sociocultural knowledge with them, they need not express such knowledge in discourse in the first place, and may assume that the recipients will make the necessary inferences from such knowledge, for instance to establish coherence. In this sense, discourses are like icebergs of which usually only the new information is 'visible' and explicitly expressed, but the vast amounts of known or inferable information remains largely 'invisible' or implicit.

If news reports presuppose vast amounts of knowledge among the readers, a more social psychological approach would ask how such knowledge is spread and acquired, and what the role of newspapers is in processes we may call 'knowledge distribution,' 'social information processing,' or simply 'public communication.'

The sociology of knowledge and discourse may then focus on such notions as epistemic communities in order to make explicit how various kinds of knowledge are shared by different groups in society. Similarly, apart from studying the role of the mass media in society, such a sociology of knowledge may also examine what other epistemic organizations or institutions, such as schools, universities, laboratories or academies are involved in the (re)production, regulation and legitimation of socially shared knowledge. For instance, in the article on asylum seekers, the journalist refers to the ministry as a reliable source of information, and readers of the *Telegraph* may in turn cite the newspaper as a reliable source of their knowledge and opinions about asylum seekers.

Ideology and Discourse

A Multidisciplinary Introduction

Teun A. van Dijk

Pompeu Fabra University, Barcelona

Barcelona, 2012

- *An earlier version of this book was used as an internet course for the Universitat Oberta de Catalunya (Open University) in 2000.*
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Ideology and power

The fundamental social question for a theory of ideology is *why* people develop ideologies in the first place. Cognitively, as we have seen, ideologies may be developed because they organize social representations. At the level of groups, this means that people are better able to form groups based on identification along various dimensions, including sharing the same ideology. Since ideologies indirectly control social practices in general, and discourse in particular, the obvious further social function of ideologies is that they enable or facilitate joint action, interaction and cooperation of ingroup members, as well as interactions with outgroup members. These would be the social micro-level functions of ideologies.

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At the macro-level of description, ideologies are most commonly described in terms of group relations, such as those of *power* and *dominance*. Indeed, ideologies were traditionally often defined in terms of the legitimization of dominance, namely by the ruling class, or by various elite groups or organizations.

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Thus, if power is defined here in terms of the *control* one group has over (the actions of the members of) another group, ideologies function as the mental dimension of this form of control. That is, ideologies are the basis of dominant group members' practices (say of discrimination). They provide the principles by which these forms of power abuse may be justified, legitimized, condoned or accepted.

In other words, ideologies are the beginning and end, the source and the goal, of *group* practices, and thus geared towards the reproduction of the group and its power (or the challenge towards the power of other groups). Traditionally the term 'dominant ideologies' is used when referring to ideologies employed by dominant groups in the reproduction or legitimization of their dominance.

Power. If there is one notion often related to ideology it is that of power, as we also see throughout this course. As is the case for many very general and abstract notions in the social sciences and the humanities, there are many definitions and theories of power. Here we only speak of social power, that is, the power of a group A over another group B. This power may be defined in terms of control. Usually this means the control of action: A is able to control (limit, prohibit) the actions of B. Since discourse is also a form of action, such control may also be exercised over discourse and its properties: its context, its topic, or its style. And because such discourse may also influence the mind of the recipients, powerful groups may --indirectly, for instance through the mass media -- also control the minds of other people. We then speak of persuasion or manipulation. In terms of our cognitive theory this means that powerful discourse may influence the way we define an event or situation in our mental models, or how we represent society in our knowledge, attitudes and ideologies. Power needs a 'power base', such as scarce social resources such as force, money, real estate, knowledge, information or status. One of the important social resources of much contemporary power is the access to public discourse. Who controls public discourse, indirectly controls the minds (including the ideologies) of people, and therefore also their social practices. We shall often encounter this relation between social power, discourse, the mind and control. In a more critical approach to power, we are especially interested in power abuse or dominance, and how ideologies may be used to legitimate such dominance.

introduction. critical language study

'How do we recognize the shackles that tradition has placed upon us? For if we can recognize them, we are also able to break them.'

FRANZ BOAS

This book is about language and power, or more precisely about connections between language use and unequal relations of power, particularly in modern Britain. I have written it for two main purposes. The first is more theoretical: to help correct a widespread underestimation of the significance of language in the production, maintenance, and change of social relations of power. The second is more practical: to help increase consciousness of how language contributes to the domination of some people by others, because consciousness is the first step towards emancipation.

The more theoretical objective stems from my own academic background, which is in linguistics. Linguists, and especially those working in sociolinguistics (which is often said to deal with 'language in its social context') have had quite a lot to say about language and power, but they have not in my opinion done justice to the rich and complex interrelationships of language and power. There are for example many studies of 'standard' and 'nonstandard' social dialects, and of how the amount of prestige which attaches to such dialects depends on the power of their users. There have also been studies of the ways in which power is exercised in conversation and other forms of talk between people, though perhaps surprisingly few. These studies have generally set out to *describe* prevailing sociolinguistic conventions in terms of how they distribute power unequally; they have not set out to *explain* these conventions as the product of relations of power and struggles for power. The point is that sociolinguistic conventions have a dual relation to power: on the one hand they incorporate differences of power, on the other hand they arise out of – and give rise to – particular relations of power.

My main focus in this book will be on the second of these – on trying to explain existing conventions as the outcome of power relations and power

of *non-powerful participants*. It is useful to distinguish broadly between three types of such constraints – constraints on:

- *contents*, on what is said or done;
- *relations*, the social relations people enter into in discourse;
- *subjects*, or the ‘subject positions’ people can occupy.

‘Relations’ and ‘subjects’ are very closely connected, and all three overlap and co-occur in practice, but it is helpful to be able to distinguish them. Our example illustrates all three types of constraint. In terms of contents, the student is required to conduct an examination according to a learned routine, operating (relations) in a professional relationship to his audience and a subordinate relationship to the doctor, and occupying (subjects) the subject positions of (aspirant) doctor as well as student. These constraints imply particular linguistic forms.

But some of these constraints on the student do not appear to involve any direct control being exercised by the doctor. Notice for instance that all the *directive speech acts* (orders and questions) in the example come from the doctor: it appears that the doctor has the right to give orders and ask questions, whereas the students have only the obligation to comply and answer, in accordance with the subordinate relation of student to doctor. Yet the doctor is not directly controlling the student in this respect. Rather, the constraints derive from the conventions of the discourse type which is being drawn upon. However, in an indirect sense, the doctor *is* in control, for it is the prerogative of powerful participants to determine which discourse type(s) may be legitimately drawn upon. Thus in addition to directly constraining contributions, powerful participants can indirectly constrain them by selecting the discourse type. Notice that the latter type of constraint is also a form of self-constraint: once a discourse type has been settled upon, its conventions apply to all participants, including the powerful ones. However, that is something of a simplification, because more powerful participants may be able to treat conventions in a more cavalier way, as well as to allow or disallow varying degrees of latitude to less powerful participants.

Ideology

A Multidisciplinary Approach

Teun A. van Dijk

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The fuzzy life of 'ideology'

It's almost a routine. Studies of ideology often begin with a remark about the vagueness of the notion and the resulting theoretical confusion of its analysis, as I did in the Preface. Indeed, of all essentially contested and controversial concepts in the social sciences and the humanities, that of 'ideology' may well come out near the top of the list. One historical and political — and, yes, ideological — reason for this special status may be that 'ideology' is one of these notions that have divided Marxists and non-Marxists, as well as 'critical' scholars and 'uncritical' ones — obviously divisions that are themselves ideological.

Still, as a general concept, ideology is hardly more vague than similar Big Terms in the social sciences and the humanities. In many respects, the same holds for such notions as 'society', 'group', 'action', 'power', 'discourse', 'mind' and 'knowledge', among many others. These notions defy precise definition and seem to happily live the fuzzy life inherent in such catch-all terms that denote complex sets of phenomena and that are the preferred toys of philosophers and scholars in the humanities and the social sciences. Where 'ideology' differs from these other general notions, however, is that its conunonsense usage is generally pejorative.

Definitions generally are hardly adequate to capture all the complexities of such notions. Indeed, such fundamental notions are the objects of inquiry for theories and whole disciplines. Definitions cannot be expected to summarize all the insights accumulated in such bodies of knowledge — even if there were no controversies over the meaning of the central concepts of such disciplines. In sum, as with many similar notions, and apart from its uses in everyday discourse, the various versions of the concept of ideology are simply the scholarly constructs of competing theories. That is, at least with this word, it is as Alice was told in Wonderland: we define what the word means. Of course, presuming that 'we' have the power to do so.

The new concept of ideology

To do this, I intend to develop a new notion of ideology that serves as the interface between social structure and social cognition. In that framework, ideologies may be very succinctly defined as the *basis of the social representations shared by members of a group*. This means that ideologies allow people, as group members, to organize the multitude of social beliefs about what is the case, good or bad, right or wrong, *for them*, and to act accordingly.

Ideologies may also influence what is accepted as true or false, especially when such beliefs are found to be relevant for the group. In that latter, epistemological sense, ideologies may also form the basis of specific arguments for, and explanations of, specific social arrangements, or indeed influence a specific understanding of the world in general. Note, though, that ideologies in this framework are not simply a 'world view' of a group, but rather the principles that form the *basis* of such beliefs. Here we enter the perennial debate about the relations between ideology and knowledge, which we also need to examine in some detail.

In most (but not all) cases, ideologies are self-serving and a function of the material and symbolic interests of the group. Among these interests, power over other groups (or resistance against the domination by other groups) may have a central role and hence function as a major condition and purpose for the development of ideologies. Ideologies thus operate both at the overall, global level of social structure, for instance as the socially shared mental 'monitor' of social competition, conflict, struggle and inequality, and at the local level of situated social practices in everyday life.

The core of this new concept of ideology is not an arbitrary invention that would take us too far from earlier scholarly as well as commonsense notions of ideology. If that were to have been the case, we should have had to invent a new term altogether. Several current definitions of ideology share important elements with my own. Many authors would agree that an ideology is something like a shared framework of social beliefs that organize and coordinate the social interpretations and practices of groups and their members, and in particular also power and other relations between groups.

It is this integrated socio-cognitive aspect of ideologies that is the core of the theory presented in this book. Though traditionally associated with

mental notions such as 'ideas', 'beliefs', 'consciousness', 'common sense' and related notions, these mental dimensions of ideologies have rarely been analysed in any detail in most philosophical and sociological studies of ideology. Similarly, the psychological work on ideologies has paid attention to 'belief systems', but these were hardly analysed as such, but rather used as an independent or dependent variable in the explanation of social or political 'behaviour'. The same is true for socio-historical studies about the ideas or ideologies of specific groups or periods, although such studies obviously provide an interesting empirical basis for further analysis of underlying ideologi

Ideologies as social representations

Against the background of a critique of traditional approaches to ideology, it was first decided to limit ideologies to *socially shared representations* of a *general* and *abstract* kind. That is, ideologies are of the same family as socially shared knowledge and social attitudes. Ideologies are not individual

and not represented like specific, episodic memories, or as personal opinions. This is also why the comparison between ideology and language (or grammar) is so instructive. Both are abstract social systems shared by groups and used to accomplish everyday social practices, namely acting and communicating, respectively.

This group-based nature of ideologies and the social beliefs they control explains how and why social attitudes may be organized as coherently structured sets of group opinions. Since we typically may disagree about opinions and different groups may have different or conflicting goals or interests, it is not surprising that underlie such opinions are associated with groups.

The very general polarization schema defined by the opposition between Us and Them suggests that groups and group conflicts are involved, and that groups build an ideological image of themselves and others, in such a way that (generally) We are represented positively, and They come out negatively. Positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation seems to be a fundamental property of ideologies. Associated with such polarized representations about Us and Them, are representations of social arrangements, that is, the kinds of things we find better (equality, a clean environment) or those which we believe others stand for (inequality, a polluted environment, a free market). At this very abstract level these social arrangements are specifications of more general *values*.

Thus, if 'freedom' is a general, socio-cultural value, then 'freedom of the market' is one of the things a capitalist ideology will represent as something We stand for; feminists will translate this general value in terms of the freedom of women (freedom from oppression and inequality, freedom of choice, and so on); and environmentalists will interpret the value as freedom from pollution, and so on. We shall focus on the nature of values later, but they obviously play a fundamental role in ideologies. This is not surprising when ideologies are taken to be the basis of group beliefs.

In sum, ideologies are representations of who we are, what we stand for, what our values are, and what our relationships are with other groups, in particular our enemies or opponents, that is, those who oppose what we stand for, threaten our interests and prevent us from equal access to social resources and human rights (residence, citizenship, employment, housing, status and respect, and so on). In other words, an ideology is a self-serving schema for the representation of Us and Them as social groups. This means that ideologies probably have the format of a group schema, or at least the format of a group schema that reflects Our fundamental social, economic, political or cultural interests.

Such an assumption is plausible when we think of the various social functions of ideologies, to which we shall return in more detail later. Thus, ideologies may be used to legitimate or obscure power abuse, or conversely they may be used to resist or denounce domination and inequality. Ideologies thus are needed to organize our social practices in such a way that they serve our best interests, and prevent others from hurting such interests.

These various more or less intuitive conceptions of the nature and functions of ideology, and the assumption that ideologies may be represented as group schemata, suggest the following categories for a tentative format of the structure of ideologies:

- *Membership*: Who are we? Where are we from? What do we look like? Who belongs to us? Who can become a member of our group?
- *Activities*: What do we do? Why are we here?
- *Goals*: Why do we do this? What do we want to realize?

- *Values/norms*: What are our main values? How do we evaluate ourselves and others? What should (not) be done?
- *Position and group-relations*: What is our social position? Who are our enemies, our opponents? Who are like us, and who are different?
- *Resources*: What are the essential social resources that our group has or needs to have?

These categories and the basic questions they stand for seem to be the fundamental *co-ordinates of social groups*, and the conditions of their existence and reproduction. Together they define both the *identity* as well as the *interests* of the group. Thus, if ideologies are primarily representations of the basic properties of groups, then this schema should be a serious candidate for the organization of ideological beliefs.

This schema seems fairly generally applicable to all ideological groups, whether based on more or less inherent characteristics (gender, ethnicity, age, etc.), on what we do (as for professional ideologies), our goals (as for ideologies of action groups), norms and values (as for conservatives versus progressives; religious and non-religious people), our relations with others (superiors versus subordinates), and the typical resources we do or do not have (rich versus poor; employed versus unemployed; homeless versus those who have a home). That is, each category may be needed to define all groups, but groups may also be identified specifically by one particular category.

This may also explain why there are differences between membership, activity, goal, etc. ideologies. Thus, feminism is typically a goal ideology, that is, defined by the hierarchically most important belief of the ideology, namely, to arrive at full equality for women and men. Similarly, the ideology of black nationalism is a membership ideology when it is limited to questions of appearance and 'racial pride' (as old slogan about 'black is beautiful' and 'négritude' imply), and a position or resistance ideology when it focuses on self-determination and black empowerment. Capitalism on the other hand would rather be a resource ideology, aiming to ensure freedom of enterprise and freedom of the market. In other words, the categorial structure of ideologies also allows a *typology* of ideologies, as well as the possibility of changing hierarchies in the representation of ideological beliefs.

Each category of this ideological format functions as the organizing pattern of a number of basic evaluative beliefs. Note though that these beliefs are by definition ideological. Thus, journalists in their professional (activity) ideology, may represent themselves essentially as gathering and bringing the news, for instance. They do this, they would say, in order to inform the public and more generally to serve as a watchdog of society. Obviously, these are ideological goals, because we know that many journalists hardly do this. That is, such a goal is at most a benchmark or a property of an ideal type: how journalists would like to be. The same is true for their (professional) values, such as truth, reliability, fairness, and so on. The

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and
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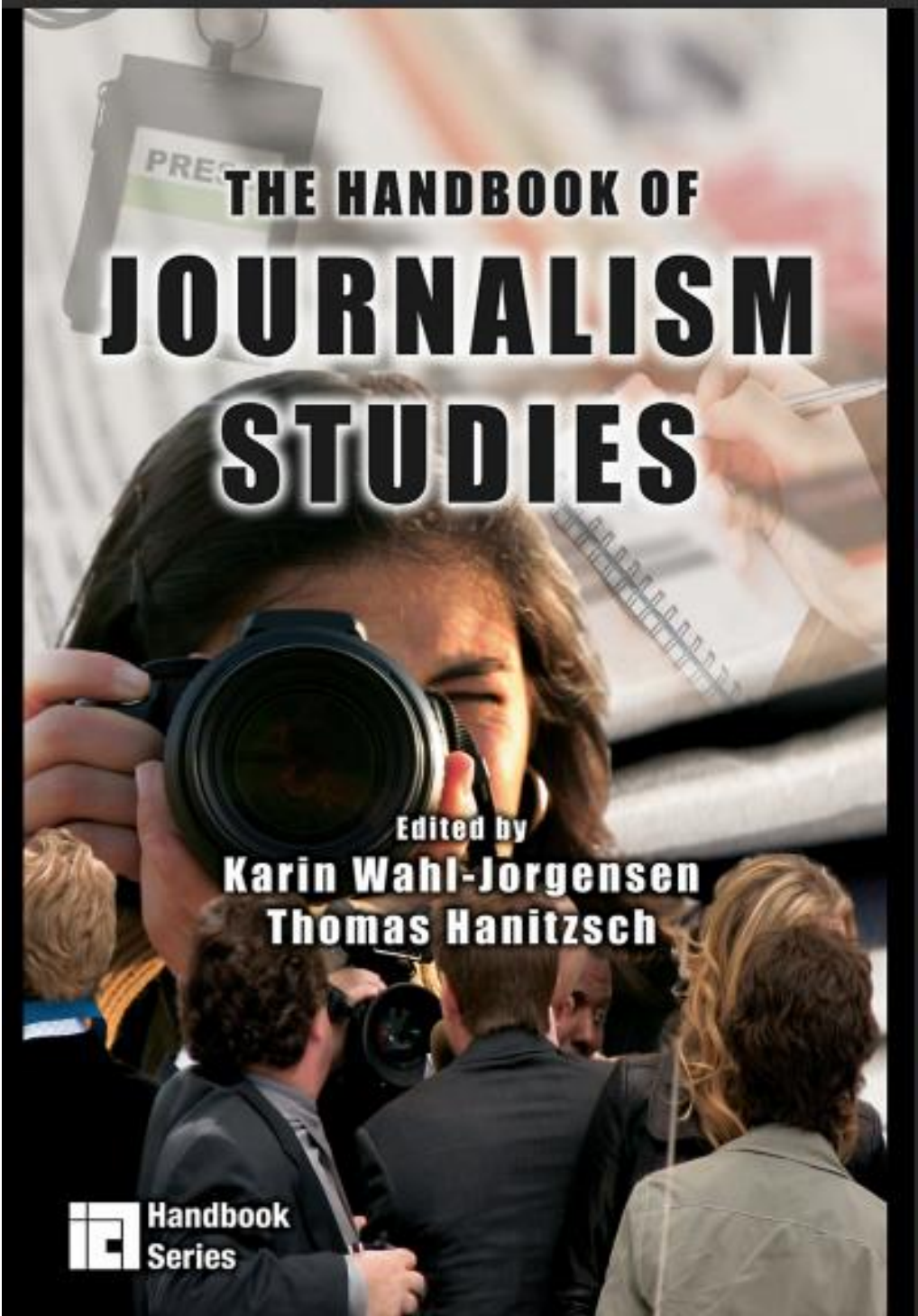
the way people use it, we can also describe the structure and content of an ideology. Power, and especially symbolic power, is supported by ideologies. Because scholars have many approaches to defining ideology, we don't cover them all here. Rather, we'll describe a few key ideas that will provide you with the tools you need to help you understand language and power.

The linguists Gunther Kress and Robert Hodge define ideology 'as a systematic body of ideas, organised from a particular point of view' (1993: 6). In everyday contexts, the word 'ideology' is something negative or at the very least **marked**. We think that only groups like terrorists have an ideology. But as an ideology is a set of beliefs, a world view, we all have ideologies. While they might seem natural, normal and commonsensical, they are ideologies nevertheless. It is common to think that ideology is bad and that only other people have ideologies. But this is not the case. In a similar way, we don't tend to notice our own language as one with an 'accent' when we are among people who speak like us. We mostly only notice other accents. Our perception of our own ideologies is the same. Our ideologies seem normal, and we tend to label the world views of people who see the world differently as 'ideological'. It is this common sense, this seemingly natural and normal way of thinking and acting which we can talk about in terms of the dominant ideology, or **hegemonic** ideology. So, ideology is a way of talking about a whole set of ways of thinking and acting.

As world views, ideologies help us to make sense of the world and the people in it. Earlier, we referred to prescriptivism. This is the belief that there are correct ways of using language. As we discussed, these correct ways are defended as protecting a language, promoting clarity and mutual comprehension. As you can see now, prescriptivism is an ideology, sometimes referred to as **standard language** ideology. But as we have also seen, ideologies have consequences. The standard language ideology results in negative judgements being made about people who do not use the 'correct' forms of language.

Ideologies also have structures. The beliefs that constitute the ideology can be identified (for example, that there is a standard language and that people should always use it). Moreover, these beliefs, and so the structure of the ideology, can be mapped and understood by paying attention to the way the choices are made in language. Consider the two sentences from Agress quoted earlier:

There are hundreds of grammar mistakes people make daily, and I cringe every time I hear just one. I am certain my readers have their own lists of pet peeves.



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IDEOLOGY

Many of the observations made above for the complex object of discourse, also apply to the concept of ideology, which equally needs a multidisciplinary approach. This approach may be summarized in the following points (for detail, see Van Dijk, 1998):

1. The original notion of ideology as a “science of ideas” (proposed by Destutt de Tracy at the end of the 18th century) soon received a *negative connotation*, reflected also in the vague concept of “false consciousness” used by Marx and Lenin. This negative meaning has dominated both the study as well as the political applications of the concept of ideology until today, as we know from the work of Mannheim, Lukács, Althusser, Hall, Thompson and Eagleton, among many others.
 2. Traditional approaches to ideologies largely ignored the *discursive* and *cognitive* dimension of ideology, despite the fact that ideas (beliefs) and hence ideologies are mental representations, and that ideologies are largely (re)produced by text, talk and communication.
 3. A new, *multidisciplinary approach to ideology* should integrate a theory of ideology as a form of *social cognition* (as is also the case for knowledge), a theory of the role of *discourse* in the expression and reproduction of ideology, and a theory of the functions of ideology in *society*, for instance in the (re)production of social *groups* and *group relations*.
 4. Such a theory should not define ideologies as inherently negative, because ideologies as socially shared by groups are not only used to legitimate power abuse (domination), but also to bolster resistance, as is the case for the socialist, feminist or pacifist movements.
 5. Ideologies are not just any kind of social beliefs, but the fundamental, *axiomatic beliefs* underlying the social representations shared by a group, featuring fundamental *norms* and *values* (such as those of freedom, justice, equality, etc.) which may be used or abused by each social group to impose, defend or struggle for its own *interests* (e.g., freedom of the press, freedom of the market, freedom from discrimination, etc.).
 6. Ideologies may be seen as the basis of the (positive) *self-image of a group*, organized by fundamental categories such as the desired (valued, preferred) identity, actions, norms and values, resources and relations to other groups. Characteristic of such ideological structures is the polarization between (positive) Us (the ingroup), and (negative) Them (the outgroup). Thus, journalistic (professional) ideologies are defined in terms of typical actions of newsmaking, values such as press freedom, objectivity, fairness or the protected resource of information, as well as the relations to the readers, sources, news actors and the state.
 7. Ideologies control more specific socially shared *attitudes* of groups (for instance, a racist ideology may control racist attitudes about immigration, integration, legislation, and so on).
 8. Attitudes (such as those of Halaman 214 / 467 tion, death penalty, and other important social issues) are *general and abstract*, and may be more or less known and shared
-



Nicholas Walliman

**Research
Methods**

the basics

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QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

It would be convenient if, when doing a research project, every step of the process was completed before moving onto the next in a nice and tidy fashion. However, this rarely happens, particularly if you are an inexperienced researcher learning as you go or are delving into areas of knowledge that are little explored. You will often need to go back and reconsider previous decisions or adjust and elaborate on work as you gain more understanding and knowledge and acquire more skills. But there are also types of research in which a reciprocal process of data collection and data analysis is an essential part of the project. The information gained from analysis of the preliminary data collection leads to better understanding of the situation and helps to determine what further data collection is required. This process is repeated in order to build up an increasingly sophisticated understanding of the subject of the study. Figure 10.1 shows how this works. You will see that the first part of the research process is similar in all research, though in qualitative research the definition of the concepts and process of investigation will be more tentative and explorative than in quantitative research. It is in the data collection and analysis where the main difference lies. You will see the reiterative process of data collection, theory development and refinement of the research questions that indicates where more data collection is required. This process continues until satisfactory evidence is collected

STEPS IN ANALYSING THE DATA

How is it possible to organize and analyse qualitative data that is in the form of words, pictures and even sounds, and to come to some conclusions about what they reveal? Unlike the well-established statistical methods of analysing quantitative data, qualitative data analysis is still in its early stages. The certainties of mathematical formulae and determinable levels of probability are difficult to apply to the 'soft' nature of qualitative data, which is inextricably bound up with individual human feelings, attitudes and judgements and their interplay in society.

Miles and Huberman (1994: 10–12) suggested that there should be three concurrent flows of action:

2 THE MAIN RESEARCH METHODS

- 1 data reduction;
- 2 data display;
- 3 conclusion drawing/verification.

An awkward mass of information that is normally collected to provide the basis for analysis cannot be easily understood when presented as extended text. Information in text is dispersed, sequential rather than concurrent, bulky and difficult to structure. Our minds are not good at processing large amounts of information, preferring to simplify complex information into patterns and easily understood configurations. Therefore data reduction through coding, clustering and summarizing provides the first step to simplification, followed by arranging the compacted data into diagrams and tables which can display the data in a way that enables you to explore relationships and gauge the relative significances of different factors.

4th
Edition

Introduction to
Qualitative
Research Methods

A Guidebook and Resource

Steven J. Taylor
Robert Bogdan
Marjorie L. DeVault

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QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The phrase *qualitative methodology* refers in the broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data—people’s own written or spoken words and observable behavior. As Ray Rist (1977) pointed out, qualitative methodology, like quantitative methodology, is more than a set of data-gathering techniques. It is a way of approaching the empirical world. In this section we present our notion of qualitative research.

1. *Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning people attach to things in their lives.* Central to the phenomenological perspective and hence qualitative research is understanding people from their own frames of reference and

8 INTRODUCTION TO QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

experiencing reality as they experience it (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Qualitative researchers empathize and identify with the people they study in order to understand how those people see things. Herbert Blumer (1969) explained it this way:

To try to catch the interpretative process by remaining aloof as a so-called “objective” observer and refusing to take the role of the acting unit is to risk the worst kind of subjectivism—the objective observer is likely to fill in the process of interpretation with his² own surmises in place of catching the process as it occurs in the experience of the acting unit which uses it. (p. 86)

As suggested by Blumer’s quote, qualitative researchers must attempt to suspend, or set aside, their own perspectives and taken-for-granted views of the world. Bruyn (1966) advised the qualitative researcher to view things as though they were happening for the first time. Nothing is taken for granted. Psathas (1973) wrote:

For the sociologist, a phenomenological approach to observing the social world requires that he break out of the natural attitude and examine the very assumptions that structure the experience of actors in the world of everyday life. A method that provides assistance in this is “bracketing” the assumptions of everyday life. This does not involve denying the existence of the world or even doubting it (it is not the same as Cartesian doubt). Bracketing changes my attitude toward the world, allowing me to see with clearer vision. I set aside preconceptions and presuppositions, what I already “know” about the social world, in order to discover it with clarity of vision. (pp. 14–15)

THIRD EDITION

RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative, Quantitative, and
Mixed Methods Approaches



JOHN W. CRESWELL



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CHAPTER NINE

Qualitative Procedures

Qualitative procedures demonstrate a different approach to scholarly inquiry than methods of quantitative research. Qualitative inquiry employs different philosophical assumptions; strategies of inquiry; and methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Although the processes are similar, qualitative procedures rely on text and image data, have unique steps in data analysis, and draw on diverse strategies of inquiry.

In fact, the strategies of inquiry chosen in a qualitative project have a dramatic influence on the procedures, which, even within strategies, are anything but uniform. Looking over the landscape of qualitative procedures shows diverse perspectives ranging from social justice thinking (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005), to ideological perspectives (Lather, 1991), to philosophical stances (Schwandt, 2000), to systematic procedural guidelines (Creswell, 2007; Corbin & Strauss, 2007). All perspectives vie for center stage in this unfolding model of inquiry called qualitative research.

This chapter attempts to combine many perspectives, provide general procedures, and use examples liberally to illustrate variations in strategies. This discussion draws on thoughts provided by several authors writing about qualitative proposal design (e.g., see Berg, 2001; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; Maxwell, 2005; Rossman & Rallis, 1998). The topics in a proposal section on procedures are characteristics of qualitative research, the research strategy, the role of the researcher, steps in data collection and analysis, strategies for validity, the accuracy of findings, and narrative structure. Table 9.1 shows a checklist of questions for designing qualitative procedures.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

For many years, proposal writers had to discuss the characteristics of qualitative research and convince faculty and audiences as to their legitimacy. Now these discussions are less frequently found in the literature and there is some consensus as to what constitutes qualitative inquiry. Thus, my suggestions about this section of a proposal are as follows:

Table 9.1 A Checklist of Questions for Designing a Qualitative Procedure

-
- **Researcher as key instrument**—Qualitative researchers collect data themselves through examining documents, observing behavior, or interviewing participants. They may use a protocol—an instrument for collecting data—but the researchers are the ones who actually gather the information. They do not tend to use or rely on questionnaires or instruments developed by other researchers.
 - **Multiple sources of data**—Qualitative researchers typically gather multiple forms of data, such as interviews, observations, and documents, rather than rely on a single data source. Then the researchers review all of the data, make sense of it, and organize it into categories or themes that cut across all of the data sources.
 - **Inductive data analysis**—Qualitative researchers build their patterns, categories, and themes from the bottom up, by organizing the data into increasingly more abstract units of information. This inductive process illustrates working back and forth between the themes and the database until the researchers have established a comprehensive set of themes. It may also involve collaborating with the participants interactively, so that participants have a chance to shape the themes or abstractions that emerge from the process.
 - **Participants' meanings**—In the entire qualitative research process, the researcher keeps a focus on learning the meaning that the participants hold about the problem or issue, not the meaning that the researchers bring to the research or writers express in the literature.
 - **Emergent design**—The research process for qualitative researchers is emergent. This means that the initial plan for research cannot be tightly prescribed, and all phases of the process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field and begins to collect data. For example, the questions may change, the forms of data collection may shift, and the individuals studied and the sites visited may be modified. The key idea behind qualitative research is to learn about the problem or issue from participants and to address the research to obtain that information.
 - **Theoretical lens**—Qualitative researchers often use lens to view their studies, such as the concept of culture, central to ethnography, or gendered, racial, or class differences from the theoretical orientations discussed in Chapter 3. Sometimes the study may be organized around identifying the social, political, or historical context of the problem under study.
 - **Interpretive**—Qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear, and understand. Their interpretations cannot be separated from their own backgrounds, history, contexts, and prior understandings. After a research report is issued, the readers make an interpretation as well as the participants, offering yet other interpretations of the study. With the readers, the participants, and the researchers all making interpretations, it is apparent how multiple views of the problem can emerge.
 - **Holistic account**—Qualitative researchers try to develop a complex picture of the problem or issue under study. This involves reporting multiple perspectives, identifying the many factors involved in a situation, and generally sketching the larger picture that emerges. A visual model of many facets of a process or a central phenomenon aid in establishing this holistic picture (see, for example, Creswell & Brown, 1992).

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Comments about the role of the researcher set the stage for discussion of issues involved in collecting data. The data collection steps include setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through unstructured or semistructured observations and interviews, documents, and visual materials, as well as establishing the protocol for recording information.

- Identify the *purposefully selected* sites or individuals for the proposed study. The idea behind qualitative research is to **purposefully select** participants or sites (or documents or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question. This does not necessarily suggest random sampling or selection of a large number of participants and sites, as typically found in *quantitative* research. A discussion about participants and site might include four aspects identified by Miles and Huberman (1994): the *setting* (where the research will take place), the *actors* (who will be observed or interviewed), the *events* (what the actors will be observed or interviewed doing), and the *process* (the evolving nature of events undertaken by the actors within the setting).
- Indicate the type or types of data to be collected. In many qualitative studies, inquirers collect multiple forms of data and spend a considerable time in the natural setting gathering information. The collection procedures in qualitative research involve four basic types, as shown in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2 Qualitative Data Collection Types, Options, Advantages, and Limitations

| Data Collection Types | Options Within Types | Advantages of the Type | Limitations of the Type |
|-----------------------|---|--|--|
| Observations | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Complete participant—researcher conceals role• Observer as participant—role of researcher is known | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Researcher has a first-hand experience with participant.• Researcher can record information as it occurs. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Researcher may be seen as intrusive.• Private information may be observed that researcher |

Table 9.2 Qualitative Data Collection Types, Options, Advantages, and Limitations

| Data Collection Types | Options Within Types | Advantages of the Type | Limitations of the Type |
|-----------------------|--|---|---|
| Observations | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Complete participant—researcher conceals role• Observer as participant—role of researcher is known• Participant as observer—observation role secondary to participant role• Complete observer—researcher observes without participating | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Researcher has a first-hand experience with participant.• Researcher can record information as it occurs.• Unusual aspects can be noticed during observation.• Useful in exploring topics that may be uncomfortable for participants to discuss. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Researcher may be seen as intrusive.• Private information may be observed that researcher cannot report.• Researcher may not have good attending and observing skills.• Certain participants (e.g., children) may present special problems in gaining rapport. |
| Interviews | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Face-to-face—one-on-one, in-person interview• Telephone—researcher interviews by phone• Focus group—researcher interviews participants in a group• E-mail internet interview | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Useful when participants cannot be directly observed.• Participants can provide historical information.• Allows researcher control over the line of questioning. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provides indirect information filtered through the views of interviewees.• Provides information in a designated place rather than the natural field setting.• Researcher's presence may bias responses.• Not all people are equally articulate and perceptive. |

| Data Collection Types | Options Within Types | Advantages of the Type | Limitations of the Type |
|------------------------|--|---|---|
| Documents | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public documents, such as minutes of meetings, or newspapers Private documents, such as journals, diaries, or letters | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enables a researcher to obtain the language and words of participants. Can be accessed at a time convenient to researcher—an unobtrusive source of information. Represents data which are thoughtful in that participants have given attention to compiling them. As written evidence, it saves a researcher the time and expense of transcribing. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not all people are equally articulate and perceptive. May be protected information unavailable to public or private access. Requires the researcher to search out the information in hard-to-find places. Requires transcribing or optically scanning for computer entry. Materials may be incomplete. The documents may not be authentic or accurate. |
| Audio-Visual Materials | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Photographs Videotapes Art objects Computer software Film | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> May be an unobtrusive method of collecting data. Provides an opportunity for participants to directly share their reality. If is creative in that it captures attention visually. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> May be difficult to interpret. May not be accessible publicly or privately. The presence of an observer (e.g., photographer) may be disruptive and affect responses. |

NOTE: This table includes material taken from Merriam (1998), Bogdan & Biklen (1992), and Creswell (2007).

• **Qualitative observations** are those in which the researcher takes field notes on the behavior and activities of individuals at the research site. In these field notes, the researcher records, in an unstructured or semistructured way (using some prior questions that the inquirer wants to know), activities at the research site. Qualitative observers may also engage in roles varying from a non-participant to a complete participant.

• **Qualitative observations** are those in which the researcher takes field notes on the behavior and activities of individuals at the research site. In these field notes, the researcher records, in an unstructured or semistructured way (using some prior questions that the inquirer wants to know), activities at the research site. Qualitative observers may also engage in roles varying from a non-participant to a complete participant.

• In **qualitative interviews**, the researcher conducts face-to-face interviews with participants, interviews participants by telephone, or engages in focus group interviews, with six to eight

interviewees in each group. These interviews involve unstructured and generally open-ended questions that are few in number and intended to elicit views and opinions from the participants.

• During the process of research, the investigator may collect **qualitative documents**. These may be public documents (e.g., newspapers, minutes of meetings, official reports) or private documents (e.g., personal journals and diaries, letters, e-mails).

• A final category of qualitative data consists of **qualitative audio and visual materials**. This data may take the form of photographs, art objects, videotapes, or any forms of sound.

• In a discussion about data collection forms, be specific about the types and include arguments concerning the strengths and weaknesses of each type, as discussed in Table 9.2.

• Include data collection types that go beyond typical observations and interviews. These unusual forms create reader interest in a proposal and can capture useful information that observations and interviews may miss. For example, examine the compendium of types of data in Table 9.3 that can be used, to stretch the imagination about possibilities, such as gathering sounds or tastes, or using cherished items to elicit comments during an interview.

DATA RECORDING PROCEDURES

Before entering the field, qualitative researchers plan their approach to data recording. The proposal should identify what data the researcher will record and the procedures for recording data.

| |
|--|
| <p>Observations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gather field notes by conducting an observation as a participant. • Gather field notes by conducting an observation as an observer. • Gather field notes by spending more time as a participant than as an observer. • Gather field notes by spending more time as an observer than as a participant. • Gather field notes first by observing as an outsider and then moving into the setting and observing as an insider. |
| <p>Interviews</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conduct an unstructured, open-ended interview and take interview notes. • Conduct an unstructured, open-ended interview, audiotape the interview, and transcribe it. • Conduct a semistructured interview, audiotape the interview, and transcribe the interview. • Conduct a focus group interview, audiotape the interview, and transcribe it. • Conduct different types of interviews: email, face-to-face, focus group, online focus group, telephone interviews |
| <p>Documents</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keep a journal during the research study. • Have a participant keep a journal or diary during the research study. • Collect personal letters from participants. • Analyze public documents (e.g., official memos, minutes, records, archival material). • Examine autobiographies and biographies. • Have participants take photographs or videotapes (i.e., photo elicitation). • Chart audits • Medical records |
| <p>Audio-visual Materials</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine physical trace evidence (e.g., footprints in the snow). • Videotape or film a social situation or an individual or group. • Examine photographs or videotapes. • Collect sounds (e.g., musical sounds, a child's laughter, car horns honking). • Collect e-mail messages. • Collect cell phone text messages. • Examine possessions or ritual objects. • Collect sounds, smells, tastes, or any stimuli of the senses. |

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Discussion of the plan for analyzing the data might have several components. The process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data (some qualitative researchers like to think of this as peeling back the layers of an onion), representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data. Several generic processes might be stated in the proposal that convey a sense of the overall activities of qualitative data analysis, such as the following drawn from my own thoughts (Creswell, 2007) and those of Rossman and Rallis (1998):

- It is an ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytic questions, and writing memos throughout the study. I say that qualitative data analysis is conducted concurrently with gathering data, making interpretations, and writing reports. While interviews are going on, for example, the researcher may be analyzing an interview collected earlier, writing memos that may ultimately be included as a narrative in the final report, and organizing the structure of the final report.
- Data analysis involves collecting open-ended data, based on asking general questions and developing an analysis from the information supplied by participants.
- Often we see qualitative data analysis reported in journal articles and books that is a generic form of analysis. In this approach, the researcher collects qualitative data, analyzes it for themes or perspectives, and reports 4-5 themes. I consider this approach to be basic qualitative analysis; today many qualitative researchers go beyond this generic analysis to add a procedure within one of the qualitative strategies of inquiry. For example, *grounded theory* has systematic steps (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998). These involve generating categories of information (open coding), selecting one of the categories and positioning it within a theoretical model (axial coding), and then explicating a story from the interconnection of these categories (selective coding). *Case study* and *ethnographic research* involve a detailed description of the setting or individuals, followed by analysis of the data for themes or issues (see Stake, 1995; Wolcott, 1994). *Phenomenological research* uses the analysis of significant statements, the generation of meaning units, and the development of what Moustakas (1994) calls an essence description. *Narrative research* employs restorying the participants' stories using structural devices, such as plot, setting, activities, climax, and denouement (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). As these examples illustrate, the processes as well as the terms differ from one analytic strategy to another.

This figure suggests a linear, hierarchical approach building from the bottom to the top, but I see it as more interactive in practice; the various stages are interrelated and not always visited in the order presented. These levels are emphasized in the following steps:

Step 1. *Organize and prepare* the data for analysis. This involves transcribing interviews, optically scanning material, typing up field notes, or sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the sources of information.

Step 2. Read through all the data. A first step is to obtain a *general sense* of the information and to reflect on its overall meaning. What general ideas are participants saying? What is the tone

of the ideas? What is the impression of the overall depth, credibility, and use of the information? Sometimes qualitative researchers write notes in margins or start recording general thoughts about the data at this stage.

Step 3. Begin detailed analysis with a coding process. **Coding** is the process of organizing the material into chunks or segments of text before bringing meaning to information (Rossman & Rallis, 1998, p. 171). It involves taking text data or pictures gathered during data collection, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) or images into categories, and labeling those categories with a term, often a term based in the actual language of the participant (called an *in vivo* term).

Critical Discourse Analysis of News Discourse

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Abstract—News discourse is one of main analysis subjects of critical discourse analysis. People can know the opinions implied by the author and grasp the real situation of the events described in the discourse by critical discourse analysis. Furthermore, it is beneficial for the audience to establish the critical awareness of News discourse and enhance the ability to critically analyze news discourse. Based on the discussion of the concept of news discourse and critical discourse analysis, the theoretical foundations and steps of critical discourse analysis, the paper illustrates the method of the critical analysis of news discourse. The author also puts forward issues that needed to pay attention to in order to improve the ability of news discourse analysis.

Index Terms—news discourse, critical discourse analysis, method, emphases

Critical discourse analysis can provide some guidance for the analysis of news discourse. Knowing the theoretical basis and analytical method of critical discourse analysis is beneficial to understand the actual situation of the events described in the news discourse and the implicit ideological content in news discourse. The paper explores the elements and the steps of the critical discourse analysis of news discourse.

I. THE CONCEPT OF NEWS DISCOURSE AND CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

A. The Concept of News Discourse

News discourse, a vital field of linguistic research, is always seen as an objective and formal linguistic form of discourse. However, the definition of news is rather elusive. Linguistic scholars and journalists have given different versions to define it, but no one has been generally accepted in the world up to now.

News must be something extraordinary and particular enough to attract the public's attention, just as the classic comment, "When a dog bites a man, which is not news, because it happens so often. But if a man bites a dog, it's news." (Rife and Anderson, 2003)

According to Ekstrom (2002), news is "reliable, neutral and current factual information that is important and valuable for citizens in democracy" (p.259). Fowler (1991) holds that "News is not a natural phenomenon emerging straight from 'reality', but a product. It is produced by an industry, shaped by the relations between the media and other industries, by the bureaucratic and economic structure of that industry, and most importantly by relations with government and with other political organizations." (p.223)

Even if there is no a common accepted definition of news, all the above-mentioned versions are mutually complementary. In order to facilitate the study of the paper, the author borrows from various versions of news. News is the information that is published in newspaper, broadcasted on radio, played on television, and reported on the Internet about the current events taking place in a particular area or in the country or in the world. It plays an important role in modern society and becomes a window that people acquire knowledge about the world by virtue of its advantages such as timeliness and objectivity, etc. Information provided by the news reports has the function of leading the public. In the official news reports, due to the influence of factors such as value orientation, there is the ideological content hidden in discourse, which usually tends to be misunderstood by the audience.

B. The Concept of Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts (Van Dijk, 1998). In a similar vein, Fairclough (1995) defines critical discourse analysis as:

Discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (p.135).

Ruth Wodak (2000) defines it as "an interdisciplinary approach to language study with a critical point of view" for the purpose of studying "language behavior in natural speech situations of social relevance." (p.264)

In short, critical discourse analysis aims at making transparent the connections between discourse practices, social practices, and social structures, connections that might be opaque to the layperson. Linguists advocate that the use of stylistic analysis techniques traditionally employed in the literary discourse for the analysis of the non-literary discourse. Therefore, critical linguistics put their stress on the interactions that exist in the discourse and the social structure. Wu

Hongyan (2008) said: "The abilities to appreciate and criticize the language use can be improved by means of the critical analysis of the public discourse. So that they can better deal with the increasing involvement of language in social life nowadays," said Wu Hongyan. (p.332)

II. THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

A. *The Linguistic Foundations of Critical Discourse Analysis*

The linguistic bases of critical discourse analysis include the discourse analysis theory of the Foucault School and British-American School. Critical discourse analysis firstly obtains relevant theoretical basis from Critical Linguistics. Besides, it draws on Halliday's analytic method, which includes systemic-functional linguistics and the content of regarding language regarded as social semiotics.

With the development of critical linguistics, critical discourse analysis gains new understanding from the post-structuralism linguistics, that is, language and discourse are not neutral or overt means. Both of them are not only closed related to knowledge and the social relationships, but also play important roles in constructing and embodying human beings' social behaviors and identities. Post-structuralism linguists claim that knowledge people all have is from the discourse. In other words, history and culture often is the collection of the discourse. Meanwhile, it studies the dialectical relationships between discourse and power, that is, the discourse can embody power. Conversely, power is realized by the discourse, and it controls and influences the discourse. Therefore, the discourse or the text is closely related to power. Post-structuralist discourse theory has important implication for critical discourse analysis, that is, discourse is historical and specific, and its underlying meaning changes with conditions such as time, circumstance, etc. Critical discourse analysis refers to Foucault's social opinions about the discourse, and develops the viewpoints on one-way construction, including the discourse not only can reflect the social reality, but also influence the construction of the reality. So it is believed that discourse analysis not only can reveal the social reality accurately, but also is helpful to construct the social reality.

In addition, systemic-functional grammar has an impact on critical discourse analysis. Halliday (2001) suggests that social culture's aspects constitute the building of the social realistic meaning from the perspectives of sociology and anthropology. Moreover, he (1994) believes that language has three functions, including the ideational function, the textual function and the interpersonal function. Besides, both of the discourse genre and the language choice are closely related to the register of language use, and the structure, field, tenor, and mode of the discourse subscribe to its social purposes. (Halliday, 2001) In the framework of the systemic-functional grammar, language is closely related to the social structure and the social cultural background, etc. The reason why language form is mainly determined by its social functions should be revealed from the perspective of the discourse's social communicative function. Remarkably, Post-critical discourse analysis theory suggests that language is a kind of the social practice to some extent, and the discourse is not only regarded as the form of language, but also crystallized as the social practice. In essence, critical discourse analysis studies the society from the linguistic level, and it connects the language analysis with the society analysis.

Obviously, the language views of critical discourse analysis do not conflict with the language view of systemic-functional linguistics in the matter of language having the social functions. There are two keys to both of them. Firstly, the functional linguists affirm that language has the social functions. Moreover, the language analysis not only can reveal accurately what the features of language are, but also uncover the process of people choose language according to their needs. In conclusion, Critical discourse analysis majorly emphasizes the discourse's social functions aspect. "Because the discourse and the society are interstructive, the aims of the language analysis are to reveal the interstructive relationships, the underlying power relationships and unequal relationships in the discourse." (Wei Xinxin, 2010, p.164)

B. *The Literary Criticism Foundations of Critical Discourse Analysis*

Critical linguists draw on the method of regarding literary discourse as the research subject. In the filed of western stylistic research, stylists pay attention to study the specific process of the discourse generation and the relationship between the discourse and the social and historical context of the discourse. Therefore, the basic task of literary criticism is to exam the operation process of language in the social and historical context.

Critical discourse analysis borrows from M Bakhtin's (1963) research method that he puts his stress on analyzing the dialogicality of the discourse. In other words, he emphasizes the intertextuality analysis. It refers to the different relationships such as synergies and constraints generated from different discourse in the process of the small discourse forming the large discourse. These relationships have various effects on other discourse. Naturally, discourse is influenced by a variety of genre that already existed. The author of the discourse usually creates new idea by reconstructing the different form of genre, which affects the social and cultural structures and promote the change of society effectively. Critical discourse analysis borrows from the above concept, and further puts forward the important forms of the discourse power struggle: intertextuality and dialogicality. Different texts are interwoven into the text through discourse, the meaning of the text is completed by the negotiation of the multiple coexistence discourse in the text. Therefore, the aims of uncovering the implicit power relationships and unequal relationships in the discourse can be achieved by analyzing the dialogicality and intertextuality of the discourse.

III. THE STEPS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF NEWS DISCOURSE

It is believed that we should pay attention to the practicality when we analyze the news discourse by critical discourse analysis. Because critical discourse analysis is limited by the world views and thoughts and feelings, etc. So it is difficult to analyze the specific discourse. Meanwhile, critical discourse analysis usually causes different levels of ideology analysis when we analyze the news discourse by it. In the framework of critical discourse analysis, it highlights its practicality when we analyze the news discourse. So we should do several things to help the audience to analyze the news discourse. For example, we need to seek or design some objective and practical analysis methods. Besides, we should list some relevant structures and combinations that may contain or be used to express meanings. Meanwhile, critical discourse analysis of news discourse is supported by the critical linguistics, including systemic-functional linguistics and transformation-generative grammar, etc. From the above, we suggest that we should start the critical discourse analysis of news discourse by means of the following steps.

Firstly, we should analyze structure features of the news discourse. Meanwhile, we need pay attention to connect the techniques or processes that occur in the discourse generation. For example, we analyze the news discourse that employs lots of passive structures and gerunds. It is reasonable for us to regard them as passivization or nominalization, because the generative process of the two kinds of discourse is fully reflected in the news discourse. Secondly, we need to demonstrate these basic techniques or processes are relevant to the meaning of ideology in the process of generation or understanding of the news discourse that we analyze. For example, the specific process has the functions of the social and the historical phenomenon in the news context. Lastly, we should pay attention to demonstrate the social functions of ideology hidden behind the language structure and processes, which can intervene in a social process such as maintaining a kind of power relationship, etc.

IV. THE EXAMPLE OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF NEWS DISCOURSE

With the development of the study of the critical discourse analysis, the news discourse has received more and more attentions as an important area of critical discourse analysis. Nowadays, the English news discourse influences the public opinion in the world every day, because the English mass media is increasingly penetrating into all aspects of the international community. News is not absolutely objective and fair, a lot of news discourse appears to be objective and fair, but they contain ideological content, which have a subtle effect on the audience.

After the bullet train crash occurred on July 23, 2011 in Wenzhou, there were various reports on the railway traffic accident both at home and abroad. The American mainstream media always claims that its news is objective and fair, but that is not the case. The paper takes a report on the railway traffic accident of the New York Times as an example to conduct the critical discourse analysis of news discourse.

A. *The Lexical Choice of News Discourse*

The reporter establishes the social relationships between people in news discourse by lexical choice. That is, lexical choice is significant for news discourse analysis. For example, Nominalization refers to the addresser expresses his or her meaning by employing the noun or noun phrase instead of the verb structure or sentences. It can create a impersonal effect by deleting the modal part, blurring the concept of time, and dissimulating the participants of the process or the causality, etc. Besides, passivization has functions of covering cause-effect relation and providing the convenience to the actor. In the following, we will study the lexical choice by analyzing the nominalization and passivization of news discourse in the following.

(1) The government's only explanation for Saturday's accident has been that a lightning strike disabled equipment.

(2) Immediately after the accident the government dismissed three more railway officials without explanation, and announced a thorough investigation into its cause.

In example (1) and (2), we can see that "explanation" is the noun form of "explain", the reporter blurs the subject, time and degree of "explain" by employing "explanation". The information conveyed for the audience is not comprehensive. Therefore, it is likely that they understand China government's explanation for the accident unilaterally.

(3) A railway communications officer, identified only as Mr. Liu, told the Beijing Times that after the accident, he was sent to check the communications system of the first train.

(4) In China, a torrent of public criticism continued Tuesday, with bloggers and citizens asking why the government was not more forth coming about the cause of the crash, why parts of the wreckage were buried at the site and why a toddler was found alive in the wreck even after railway authorities had said there were no further signs of life.

In example (3), action of "send" originally can be expressed in the active form. However, the reporter uses the passive form, which conceals the action and the executor of "send". So the reporter omits the main information to convey the message that there was someone to investigate the accident, which affects the objectivity of the fact. Therefore, we can see that the western media influences the public in a subtle way. From example (4), the use of the passive voice "buried" obscures the time and the indicator of the action, which leads to the audiences to assume that the burial was directed by the Chinese government. Besides, the subject of the passive voice "was found" is "toddler" that is highlighted as the subject, which expresses the cruelty of the accident indirectly. Meanwhile, it also implies the wrong information that the Chinese government does not value human rights. This also is the distortion of the image of China.

B. *The Practice Level of News Discourse*

News discourse can fully reflect reality and its objectivity by employing the reported speech. It includes direct speech and indirect speech. Direct speech refers to the information that derives from the party, the insider and the authority. It has the function of enhancing the authority of news discourse. However, indirect speech is paraphrased by the quoter. Due to the reporters' different attitudes and understanding of the original work, they express their different positions and views in the process of paraphrase. We analyze the news discourse by studying its reported speech in the following.

(5) "There appear to have been some irregularities in the high-speed rail program," said Richard Diabona, a transportation specialist at LLA Consultancy in Hongkong. "Maybe this was corruption or substandard work, or perhaps things were put into place too fast"

(6) "This is extremely rare," said Vukan R. Vuchic, a rail expert at the University of Pennsylvania. "I have never heard of lightning doing that, but if it did, everything else would stop too. And the signal system should keep trains at a safe distance.

In example (5), we can know that the reporter wants to indicate his attitude toward the accident indirectly by quoting an authoritative expert's utterance directly. Naturally, he is able to achieve his aim of controlling reader's mind. Meanwhile, in example (6), the reporter quotes the discourse of a railway expert at Pennsylvania University, which reveals contempt for China. The reported speech has a preconceived effect on the audience. This is the manifestation of the western mainstream media's ideological pervasion of the public.

(7) Six minutes after her train left the station, she said, it slowly came to a stop on the tracks and paused five or six minutes. It had just started moving again when the other train plowed into it.

(8) A railway communications officer, identified only as Mr Liu, told the Beijing Times that after the accident, he was sent to check the communications system of the first train, which was working, he said, raising the question of where the communication breakdown occurred.

From example (7), we can see that it is an indirect speech. The reporter paraphrases a passenger's description about the accident. Using indirect speech not only can enhance the persuasiveness of the news discourse, but also leave room for imagination. Meanwhile, in example (8), the reporter expresses his doubt about the location of the communication system breakdown by quoting the discourse of a railway official who is not willing to reveal his name indirectly.

C. *The Social Functions of News Discourse*

There is the dialectical relationship between news discourse and the social structure. Discourse is composed of the social structure and subject to the social class and the social structure. Meanwhile, it has corresponding social functions, because discourse has an effect on the social structure. Therefore, the critical linguists suggest that language use is an important form of the social practice. What they advocate is to connect the social analysis with the linguistic analysis.

From the above-mentioned analysis of the American media about the rear-end collision in Wen Zhou. We can know that the American media emphasizes the negative images of China. Essentially, the phenomenon is caused by the conflicts between China and the United States for a long time. Yuan Jiuxia (2009) said: "The American media has always wanted to derogate the image of China. Therefore, its media is bound to do everything possible to create China's negative images". (p.124)

V. THE IMPORTANT PARTS OF NEWS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

We should pay attention to the following aspects when analyzing news discourse by critical discourse analysis.

A. *The Issue of Exploring "Why" in Language Expression*

There is the positivist tendency in the former English linguistics, which focuses on the true and objective language description, values the content of language ("what"), and neglects the reasons of using language ("why"). The critical analysis of English news discourse happens to solve the important question of "why" of language expression. At present, the dominant view of critical linguistics is that the differences in the structures of language forms are determined by its basic functions, which not only can reflect the ideology accurately, but also reinforce the differences. However, all of these can be explained from the perspectives of the social structures and power relationships.

B. *The Accuracy of News Discourse*

The western government and media always preach to the world their peculiar idea that people can enjoy the so-called freedom of speech and press fully in western society, and their news reports are objective and fair. After analyzing the news reports carefully, we can find that the western media do not report objectively, but choose the subject and content according to its needs. It is necessary to talk about the greatest power of media is that it can express the voice of the specific group by employing the responding events at the appropriate time. The content involved in the news discourse seems to reflect people's thoughts and feelings and ideology. Therefore, critical discourse analysis puts its emphasis on analyzing the ideology tendency of new discourse, and studying the relationship between the source of news discourse and the reporter's position as well as viewpoints.

C. *The Emphases of News Discourse*

We should keep our eyes on two things when analyzing the important parts of news discourse by critical discourse analysis. Firstly, we need to analyze its semantic category and rhetoric devices. Secondly, we also need to study the interest of the social class that presented by the discourse and the implicit ideology of the group and institution in the news discourse. The ideology is not totally expressed by the reporter, but reflected through his or her cultural background, educational status and occupation, etc. Fan Lidong (2009) said: "Knowing this, we can see how state power and media rights influence the ordinary audience through the news discourse" (p.10)

D. *The Intertextuality of News Discourse*

Intertextuality is a prominent feature of news discourse. Almost all the news discourse contains reported speech. There are a variety of forms of direct and indirect speech as well as other persons' discourse without explanations. Generally, they have different themes or stylistic features, which represent the interests and ideology of the rightsholders. We can find the implicit ideology and power relationships in news discourse if analyzing its intertextuality deeply. However, the boundaries of intertextuality are not very clear. It is difficult to make clear analysis of the discourse. Therefore, we should lay stress on studying the pragmatic functions of intertextuality in the news discourse. Generally speaking, the reporter reconstructs intertextuality material according to logical relationships and semantic structure inside the news discourse. Xin Bin suggests (2000) that the key of analyzing intertextuality is to exam its semantic and pragmatic functions by studying the harmonious degree and concrete way of combining of the intertextuality material in News discourse.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

From the above-mentioned, we should pay attention to the basic knowledge of the discourse analysis. It is necessary to master the basic theory of critical discourse analysis such as systemic-functional grammar. Besides, we need to know the steps of critical discourse analysis of news discourse. Lastly, it is important to lay stress on other aspects such as the accuracy, emphases and intertextuality of news discourse. Only in this way can we further improve the ability of news discourse analysis and understand its deep meaning as accurately as possible.

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INVESTIGATING MACROSTRUCTURE, SUPERSTRUCTURE, AND MICROSTRUCTURE TOWARDS AN INDONESIAN POLITICIAN'S BRIBERY CASE

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ABSTRACT

Reports on corruption cases can cover up the actions of corruptors through the mass media that favor towards them. This research's objective is to analyze three articles that focus on Azis Syamsuddin's bribery case in Tempo English online magazine in 2020. Discourse analysis is conducted in pursuance of knowing how Tempo reports the bribery case and presents Azis Syamsuddin as the corruptor in the article. This research utilizes discourse analysis theory from Teun A. van Dijk by analyzing the macrostructure, superstructure, and microstructure elements within the three articles. The data are analyzed and written in the descriptive method with the qualitative research type. The result of the macrostructure analysis shows that Tempo, in reporting the news, stays objective with the information without any intention of siding with a particular side. All articles regarding Azis Syamsuddin inform about the case progress and the order of the events. In superstructure analysis, Tempo displays the main information in the story part of the article as it is the important part of the article. In microstructure analysis, the depiction of the actions carried out by him is shown through the use of active voices that point to the subject and do not hide him in the object position. The lexical choices of the three articles also support Tempo's neutrality in reporting the news as the words do not exaggerate reality.

Keywords: Bribery Case; Discourse Analysis; Discourse Structure

ABSTRAK

Pemberitaan mengenai kasus korupsi dapat menutupi tindakan yang dilakukan oleh para koruptor melalui media massa. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis tiga wacana yang berfokus pada kasus suap dilakukan oleh Azis Syamsuddin di majalah daring Tempo bahasa Inggris tahun 2020. Analisis wacana ini dilakukan dalam rangka mengetahui bagaimana Tempo melaporkan kasus suap dan menampilkan Azis Syamsuddin sebagai koruptor dalam artikel tersebut. Penelitian ini menggunakan teori analisis wacana milik Teun A. van Dijk dengan menganalisis unsur-unsur makrostruktur, superstruktur, dan mikrostruktur dalam ketiga artikel tersebut. Data dianalisis dan ditulis dengan metode deskriptif dengan jenis penelitian kualitatif. Hasil analisis makrostruktur menunjukkan bahwa Tempo, dalam pemberitaannya, tetap objektif dengan informasinya tanpa ada niat

INTRODUCTION

Mass media is an effective tool for providing information capable of reaching several readers at all social stages. Thus, they are expected to convey neutral and balanced information to society (Agustina & Inawati, 2022). As a result of that, in mass media reporting, the use of language impacts the news delivered. Language as a communication tool utilized by the media gives an impact on the meaning of the news conveyed by the journalist (Maghvira, 2017). Also, information produced by the press will affect the perception and social circumstances in public communication (Choiriyati, 2015).

Based on the website antikorupsi.org in 2021, Indonesia Corruption Watch (ICW) found as many as 533 corruption cases. One of the recent corruption cases comes from Azis Syamsuddin, the House of Representatives (DPR) member. He was suspected of bribing Stepanus Robin Pattuju up to Rp 3 billion regarding the Special Allocation Fund (DAK) of the APBN-P Central Lampung as reported by tempo.co in 2022. This social phenomenon in the medium of texts can be scrutinized further using a discourse analysis on how the information written in media is presented.

Meanwhile, some scholars come up with several thoughts regarding the relationship between language and discourse. Van Dijk (1988) contends that discourse analysis is a language use and goal analysis in gaining a description that is more explicit and systematic of what is delivered. Van Dijk (Wang, 2017) added that discourse is a social practice and interaction. Van Dijk (cited in (Renkema & Schubert, 2018) argues that the aim of discourse studies is to demonstrate relations

between forms of discourse elements and their functions in communication. Within the same realm, Fairclough contends that discourse is similar to a building block that constructs social identities, knowledge systems, and beliefs of individuals. Wodak also sees discourse as a system of knowledge and memory representing obvious oral utterances or written texts. Moreover, Van Dijk believes that discourse is a complex communicative event representing a social condition and containing participants and their belongings. Also, Fairclough emphasizes a strong connection between discourse and society that is discourse is constructed by the social structure at all levels of society such as by class and other social relations, by systems of taxonomy, by various standards and conventions of both a discursive and a non-discursive nature, and so forth. He finally draws a conclusion that discourse is not merely representing the world, however, it constructs the world through social practice (Gowhary et al., 2015).

Furthermore, Van Dijk (1980) introduced the concept of discourse analysis framework encompassing three elements, they are macrostructure, superstructure, and microstructure. Macrostructure, as cited in Renkema & Schubert (2018), is the global meaning of discourse that can be attributed to text. It is used to reveal a topic or theme as discourse does not only focus on connections built between sentences but also the general meaning. The object of macrostructure is thematic, which is the general topic of the discourse. The theme shows the dominant, central, and main concept of the content of the news story. The text also consists of subtopics that strengthen or become the foundation of the main topic (Payuyasa, 2017).

The second element, superstructure, deals with form. It is the framework that aims to present the structured content. The term superstructure can be illustrated by the example of a newspaper article in which headline, lead, the news article itself, etc. are presented (Renkema & Schubert, 2018). The flow represents how every part of the text is arranged to form a unified meaning (Huda et al., 2020).

Unlike macrostructure which demonstrates the global meaning, microstructure deals with the relations between sentences, such as words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Van Dijk added that microstructure encompasses semantic and syntactic structures (Renkema & Schubert, 2018). Microstructure organizes interrelated phrases, clauses, and sentences of the text (Louwerse & Graesser in

Merrita, 2020). Each sentence has a deep structure interpreted by the semantic component of the grammar. Meanwhile, syntactic transformations relate that deep structure to the surface structure of a sentence. Van Dijk added that text grammars have these deep and surface structures. Also, the most prominent thing of discourse is that the sentences are connected together which is so-called cohesion (Renkema & Schubert, 2018).

Some previous research also investigated a similar scope in terms of discourse structure within texts. Ridha (2013) depicted *The Jakarta Post*'s news structure in reporting the case involving Nazarudin, an Indonesian politician, examining how the dominant participants were described in the articles and exposing meanings assembled from the text. She analyzed five data with a similar dimension as the focus. It was summed up that the Jakarta Post stayed objective on reporting bribery cases by using their readers' opinions but still leading to one or a thing. It was noticed in the macrostructure part-news schemata. Also, the use of language in *The Jakarta Post* revealed how good or bad someone was, which was also affected by their institutions. Another similar research in discourse structure was also conducted by Aminudin (2020) with one analysis unit focused on knowing the structure of corruption news regarding Setya Novanto in *Tempo* magazine. He figured out from the macrostructure that *Tempo* highlighted Setya Novanto's perpetrating actions by providing various sub-topics and facts, saying Setya Novanto was a great politician who often slipped away from corruption cases. Also, it was concluded that *Tempo* focused on the sentence's subject.

Regarding what has been conducted in previous research, this study focuses on the discourse structure towards Aziz Syamsuddin's bribery case in *Tempo* online magazine. Based on the background of the problem, the research questions of this research are: (1) how is the macrostructure of the news?; (2) how is the superstructure of the news?; (3) how is the microstructure of the news?

METHOD

This research employs a qualitative approach. Based on Creswell (2018), the qualitative approach is a type of research for studying social problems related, and the research does not come out in numbers. The data of this research are in the

form of sentences in three articles regarding the bribery case perpetrated by Azis Syamsuddin, an Indonesian politician, in *Tempo* online magazine published on the 13th September 2021 edition. The data analysis techniques are conducted as the following: (1) analyzing the macrostructure of the news; it is conducted by investigating elements that made up the topic of the news; (2) analyzing the superstructure; at this stage, the analysis is aimed at uncovering how the information is conveyed through the examination of the news structure, such as lead, body, and the closing of the articles; (3) analyzing the microstructure involving semantic, syntax, lexicon, and stylistic.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Macrostructures

The topic is some cases with the involvement of Azis Syamsuddin. It is supported by statements written in the article presented as follows.

Table 1. Macrostructure

| Number of Article | Statements |
|-------------------|--|
| 1 | Since he became a House member, Azis has been mentioned several times in connection to several corruption scandals . In 2013, for example, Azis, who was deputy chairman of the Law Commission, was mentioned in the investigation into the driving simulator corruption case . |
| 1 | Five years later, Azis' name was mentioned in the electronic identity card (e-KTP) mega corruption scandal , which implicated former Golkar Party general chairman, Setya Novanto. |
| 2 | Internally, Golkar was abuzz with talk on the various corruption cases allegedly involving Azis because several politicians are currently gearing up to replace him in the DPR, or in the party ranks. |
| 2 | Currently, three big names eyeing Azis Syamsuddin's position in the DPR are Melchias Marcus Mekeng, Ahmad Doli Kurnia Tandjung, and Adies Kadir. The three are high-ranking officials in Golkar's central executive board. |

| Number of Article | Statements |
|-------------------|---|
| 3 | Although it has strong evidence of the involvement of the House of Representatives (DPR) deputy speaker, the KPK leadership is still playing for time. |
| 3 | Armed with Robin's confession and the evidence of bank transfers, the KPK should have had no problems bringing Azis to court . However, this is not what happened. |

Superstructures

The headline of the first article is "Case Implicating The Rose Member." The word 'The Rose Member' refers to Azis Syamsuddin as he was one of the Rose Team members, it is explained in the article about the Rose Team. The title explains briefly what the readers will find out in the article. There is also a subheadline in which Azis Syamsuddin's name is mentioned in various corruption cases, he is Setya Novanto's close friend. This subheading explains more about the title that Azis Syamsuddin was mentioned in more than one corruption case and many types of lawsuits. Meanwhile, the headline of the second article is "Case Implicating The Rose Member." The word 'The Rose Member' refers to Azis Syamsuddin as he was one of the Rose Team members, it is explained in the article about the Rose Team. The title explains briefly what the readers will find out in the article. There is also a subheadline in which Azis Syamsuddin's name is mentioned in various corruption cases, as a friend of Setya Novanto. This subheading explains more about the title that Azis Syamsuddin was mentioned in more than one corruption case and many types of lawsuits. Furthermore, the headline "Questions around The Azis Syamsuddin Case" is in the third article. It could attract readers as the title has a meaning that tells there was something with Azis Syamsuddin's case at that time. The journalist tries to convey a message regarding the unclear status of the case of Azis.

Meanwhile, one of the leads written in the article is as follows which contains 4W+1H (what, who, when, where, and how). The 'what' is information given by Rudy Mas'ud to Tempo. The 'who' is Rudy Mas'ud and Azis Syamsuddin. The 'where' is the House of Representatives plenary session. The 'when' is late

August. Meanwhile, the 'How' is the response from Azis Syamsuddin when Rudy Mas'ud asked about the case that implicated Azis. The article is opened with the fact that Azis gave a brief comment on what he faced at that time, and he just had to get through it. Rudy Mas'ud, Azis' colleague at the Golkar Party, stated the information. The headline and the lead are connected to each other. The lead supports the article's headline by informing Azis' reaction to the case implicating himself. The lead also informs Azis that he was close with Setya Novanto. He is well-known for his corruption case of e-KTP.

When he met with Azis Syamsuddin after a House of Representatives (DPR) plenary session in late August, Rudy Mas'ud mentioned the case in which Azis is implicated at the Corruption Eradication Commission (KPK). But the House deputy speaker did not comment at length. "He only said that whatever happened was a trial to face," Rudy told Tempo on Friday, September 10. Rudy then urged his colleague at the Golkar Party to stay patient and to fight.

Moreover, the story holds the main information of the article. The story part of the article starts from the 10th paragraph up to the 20th paragraph. Connected to the lead, the story contains explanations about various types of lawsuits that mentioned Azis since he joined as a House of Representatives member. The first corruption case was stated from the 10th up to the 11th paragraph. It is regarding the driving simulator corruption case as he received a box of money from Djoko Susilo, the former National Police Traffic Corps chief, but Azis denied the event. The data are as the following.

10th paragraph

... In 2013, for example, Azis, who was deputy chairman of the Law Commission, was mentioned in the investigation into the driving simulator corruption case. The scandal implicated former National Police Traffic Corps chief, Insp. Gen. Djoko Susilo.

11th paragraph

... ordered by Djoko Susilo to deliver a box of money to several DPR members, including Azis. The KPK then questioned Azis, and he denied receiving the money.

Microstructure

The background influences the sentence meaning of the article. It showed a description of Azis Syamsuddin who was involved in several corruption cases since he served as a member of the House of Representatives until he was declared a suspect by the Corruption Eradication Commission (KPK) in the bribery case at the end of 2021.

There were also some details explaining itemized about Azis Syamsuddin's mention of bribery cases in every paragraph. Meanwhile, there were also some details regarding Azis himself such as in the ninth paragraph which talks about another fact about him as follows.

... Azis was a member of the so-called Mawar (rose) Team. The Rose Team is made up of Law Commission members who were attempting to revise the KPK Law.

In addition to that, there are two types of sentence structures, active voice and passive voice. Passive sentences are used to focus on what action the subject receives. On the other hand, active sentences are used to focus on what the subject does. The following data is the 5th sentence in which Azis Syamsuddin restricted himself in politics after he was entangled in Stepanus Robin Pattuju's corruption case.

According to the DPR Law Commission member, Azis has been restricting his activities since his name was mentioned in connection to the bribery of KPK investigator, Stepanus Robin Pattuju.

Meanwhile, the information provided in the discourse should connect throughout the paragraphs. The 3rd until the 4th paragraph sequentially discusses more the case of Azis. Also, in the 3rd paragraph, it is stated that Azis introduced Robin to Syahrial, which was the reason why he was implicated in the case of Stepanus Robin.

The 3rd paragraph

In April, KPK Chief Firlu Bahuri said Azis was suspected of having introduced Stepanus Robin Pattuju to Muhammad Syahrial, mayor of Tanjung Balai, North Sumatra, at Azis' official residence in South Jakarta in October 2020. At the time, Syahrial asked for the KPK investigation into the trading of the alleged positions in Tanjungbalai to be terminated.

The 4th Paragraph

Azis has been restricting his activities since his name was mentioned in connection to the bribery of KPK investigator.

Some pronouns are also written to refer to some subjects. The journalist uses 'he' to refer to Azis Syamsuddin in the events that do not become the main center of the article and mention the name 'Azis' in the important event. For instance, in the tenth paragraph below:

10th paragraph

Since he became a House member, Azis has been mentioned several times to several corruption scandals.

13th paragraph

When the KPK questioned him as a witness, Azis denied receiving the money, although he admitted to knowing Irvanto.

Also, the journalist used the phrase "The Rose Team Member" in the title to refer to Azis Syamsuddin. The Rose Team is defined as law commission

members attempting to revise the KPK Law, and Azis was known to become one of them. Also, the word ‘scandal’ in the tenth paragraph is chosen to refer to Azis’ bribery cases meaning an action or event regarded as morally or legally wrong and causing the general public. Another diction used is the word ‘blessing’ written in the fifteenth paragraph reporting Aburizal Bakrie’s acceptance of Azis’ appointment to become DPR leader. That word is defined as a person’s sanction or support. Some of the data are presented as follows.

Table 2. Pronoun

| Number of Paragraph | Statements |
|---------------------|--|
| 1st Paragraph | The owner of the house received his two colleagues from the Golkar Party at his poolside. |
| 2nd Paragraph | ... the Corruption Eradication Commission (KPK) had declared Azis suspect in an act of corruption related to the special allocation funds earmarked for the Central Lampung Regency administration in 2017. |
| 7th Paragraph | The KPK became suspicious when Azis introduced Robin to the former regent of Kutai Kartanegara, Rita Widyasari, who was in prison |

Moreover, in the title *Positions Up for Grab*, the word ‘grab’ is written meaning to have or take something quickly. In this context, what is to be grabbed is Azis’ position as he was declared by the KPK to be the suspect in a bribery case. Also, the word ‘slap’ in the sentence *Robin was suspected of taking care investigation into Rita’s case so she could get off the hook from being slapped with the law on money laundering has the meaning to receive legal punishment* means displeasing actions.

Meanwhile, in composing the article, *Tempo* provided some pictures to support the article. There are five pictures representing every figure in the articles, some of them are as follows.



Figure 1. General Chairman of the Party

The first picture is the article's cover displaying two figures that are being talked about in the article. They are Airlangga Hartarto and Azis Syamsuddin. Airlangga was the General Chairman of the Party, and Azis was the Deputy General Chairman of the Party. Meanwhile, the second picture depicted another figure, he is Azis Syamsuddin. He pointed at something and was sitting inside the parliament complex. As the article talks about Azis Syamsuddin's implication in the bribery case, the journalist added Azis's picture as the emphasis of the information. The figure is as follows.



Figure 2. Azis Syamsuddin as Deputy General Chairman of the Party

The analysis of the macrostructure, superstructure, and microstructure initiated by Van Dijk in three articles related to the corruption case of Azis Syamsuddin disassembles the discourse structure that contains how the figure of someone who commits a criminal act of corruption is shown in news articles to the

public through the Tempo online magazine. This is in line with what was expressed by Van Dijk (in Ridha, 2013) that the discourse analysis could see how the participants in the discourse are represented in the article written publicly. There are three parts analysis in the discourse analysis to see how is the representation of the corruptor in the article of this research. The first one is macrostructure analysis. It shows the general meaning or the theme of the article. This can be revealed by analyzing the conversation in each paragraph and uniting each sub-talk to see the main point of the article's theme. In the three articles studied, each article has a related subtopic and they all form the foundation of the main topic of the news that is presented. This result is in accordance with Van Dijk's statement expressed by Fitri (2022), the subtopics in the text support the main topic of the discourse written.

In seeing how journalists organize the information in the three articles above, a superstructure is used for this method. The order of information displayed in the discourse shows what is shown first and what is displayed behind. As aligned to (Yana, 2015) the superstructure looks at how the text in the news is compiled by journalists. Tempo magazine reporting the news has the same pattern in the three articles that are analyzed in this research.

The third element examined in these three articles is the microstructure. In this section, research is conducted to analyze the elements in more detail. Microstructure helps to see what you want to convey through the discourse by looking at the text. This is also supporting Aminudin's (2020) and Ridha's (2013) research that the production of news through words and style of language chosen by the news assesses the researchers to reveal the meaning behind the news.

CONCLUSION

The discourse analysis with Teun A. van Dijk's method in the three articles about Azis Syamsuddin's bribery cases in Tempo online magazine comes with the results on how the macrostructure, the superstructure, and the microstructure of the articles are. The first one is the macrostructure analysis, which figures out the theme of the articles. The topic of the first article is Azis Syamsuddin as the corruptor. The second topic of the article is Azis Syamsuddin's position grabbed by the officials.

The third topic is the slow progress of Azis Syamsuddin's case by the KPK. The three topics are related to the situation at that time.

The second category is superstructure analysis. It is to find out how the information in the article is arranged. From the analysis, the information is arranged in sequent order based on the real event and the topic of each article. With the appropriate order of facts, making the information provided shows the accuracy of the news itself.

The last category is microstructure analysis. The language assistance in information conveyance for the article proves the neutrality of *Tempo* in reporting Azis Syamsuddin's case through the three articles analyzed. The information is directly delivered to the readers with active voices and proper diction to avoid creating uncertainty about the meaning. Related images also assist in supporting transparency in the writing of the articles.

ANALYSIS OF MACROSTRUCTURE AND SUPERSTRUCTURE OF CORRUPTION NEWS DISCOURSE IN NEWSPAPERS

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Abstract: This study aims to determine the construction of news texts in newspapers, especially in the dimensions of macrostructure and superstructure. This study used a descriptive qualitative approach with the analysis of Teun van Dijk's critical discourse, specifically the dimensions of the text. The results showed that in reporting corruption cases in *Suara Merdeka*, *Republika*, *Kompas*, and *Jawa Pos* newspapers, journalists constructed the news cases by focusing on news themes about ongoing corruption. Meanwhile, in the superstructure dimension, a number of news scheme categories are formulated to build a story, which is a summary, which is marked by two elements namely the title and lead and story, namely the overall news content from introduction to the end.

Keywords: macrostructure analysis, superstructure, news discourse, critical discourse analysis

At present, in the industrial era 4.0, information has become an economic, social, and political commodity that people continue to hunt for. Then, the premise 'information is power' applies (Subrata, 1997:70). Because of the importance of information, then the newspaper which contains the most information certainly gets the most interest from the reader. This is proved by data presented by Subrata (1997:67) that daily newspapers turn out to be more in demand by readers than other types of newspapers. Daily newspapers contain a lot of information and at the same time emphasize its novelty.

Print newspaper or print media is still needed by the community amid the proliferation of social media and digital media. In the middle of changing trends in media consumption pat-

terns in Indonesia which tend to start shifting to the digital medium, print media are demanded to be more creative in packaging content to be presented to readers so that print media can be an alternative against hoax information.

Mass media (read print media) is a means to convey and receive various information. Print media have a central role in shaping public opinion from what is reported. Now humans live in the midst of information tightness. In fact, every day we are treated to a variety of information provided by print media both discussing political, economic, social and cultural issues of society, to entertainment in accordance with the orientation of the media (Juditha, 2013).

One news that often appears at the pages of newspapers is the news of corruption. Cor-

ruption is one of the biggest problems facing developing countries today, including Indonesia. Although it is said that eradication has increased in the last three years, there are no convincing signs that this problem can be resolved immediately. The topic of corruption always appears in the headlines of news, often even as the main review in the headline (Mardikantoro, 2014: 216). This is because corruption almost always occurs in Indonesia, even it has entrenched. Corruption has become the lifestyle of our officials. Indonesia remains the country with the highest level of corruption throughout the world. Eradicating corruption is not easy because it has become a deeply entrenched culture at all levels of society. However, various eradications continue to be done in stages. If it cannot be completely eliminated, at least reduce it.

The results of monitoring Kompas, Republika, Indopos, Koran Tempo, Media Indonesia, and Seputar Indonesia newspapers in 2011, as many as 429 headlines raised the issue of corruption. In the following year, the number increased to 433 headlines and increased to 491 headlines in 2013. The spotlight on national newspapers is in line with the findings of Indonesia Corruption Watch during January-July 2014. The number of corruption cases that occurred in Indonesia reached 308 cases, an increase of 15 cases compared to semester I-2013. Actually, law enforcement efforts are not lacking especially the Corruption Eradication Commission or KPK which reveals various corruption cases. However, there are still many practices of corruption that occur. The results of the Kompas Research and Development poll on July 23-25, 2014 emphasized that the message of the latent danger of corruption must be resolved immediately (Prasetyo, 2014).

The interesting part of corruption cases was made into the news for newspapers because corruption cases often involved the names of officials both government officials and political parties. The latest news about the problem of corruption in the newspaper is the arrest of the Chairperson of Partai Persatuan Pembangunan, Romahurmuziy. Even the Corruption Eradication Commission has set Romahurmuziy as a suspect related to cases of alleged corruption in the selection of positions in the Ministry of Religion. Romahurmuziy as a member of the DPR was suspected of receiving bribes from HRS, the Head of the Regional Office of the Ministry of

Religion of East Java, and MFQ, the Head of the Gresik Regency Ministry of Religion Office (Kompas.com, 2019).

In this study, the text of corruption reporting in newspapers was analyzed with critical discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis is an attempt or process to provide an explanation of a text (social reality) that is studied by a dominant person or group whose tendency has a specific purpose to get what is desired. This means that in a context, we must be aware that there is an interest (Darma, 2009: 49). In addition, a critical approach places discourse as power (Asher and Simpson, 1994: 940). The Renkema (2004: 282) views the discourse as a reflection of a power relation in society. The critical approach understands discourse as a form of social practice (Fairclough and Wodak in Subagyo 2010: 177). In social practice, a person always has a discourse goal, including the purpose of exercising power. If that happens, the practice of discourse will display an ideological effect, namely producing and reproducing unequal power relations between social classes of men and women or the majority and minority groups (Subagyo 2010: 177). Thus, critical discourse analysis does not merely examine discourse from internal and external aspects but it can be considered as a 'window' to see ideological motives and the importance of power relations that occur in society.

This study portrays the text of corruption news in newspapers with critical discourse analysis. The Teun A. van Dijk critical discourse analysis model is used in this study. This model sees cognition as an important element in the production of discourse. Discourse does not only concern the structure of discourse but also includes how the discourse is produced. The process of producing discourse includes a process called social cognition. The problem revealed in this study is how the construction of corruption is manifested in the dimension of the news text in the newspaper, especially in the dimensions of the macrostructure and superstructure.

METHODS

The assessment of the problem in this study used two approaches namely empirical sociological approaches and critical approaches. The empirical sociological approach understands dis-

course as a speech event which is bound by the context of the situation (Asher and Simpson 1994:940). In the empirical sociological approach, discourse is examined from an external perspective. From an external perspective, discourse can be studied in terms of its relation to three things, namely the speaker, the thing being discussed, and the speech partner or the relation of the discourse to its context, namely who the speaker is, who it is addressed to, who is spoken in what kind of situation, what it is intended for, and so on. Thus, it can be said that if the discourse is associated with the context it means that the analysis of the discourse is studied pragmatically.

Additionally, this study also used a critical approach. This approach places discourse as power (Asher and Simpson 1994:940) or views discourse as a reflection of relations in society. The critical approach understands discourse as a form of social practice. In social practice, a person always has a discourse goal, including the purpose of run power. If this happens, the practice of discourse will display ideological effects, namely producing and reproducing unequal power relations between social classes, men and women, as well as the majority and minority groups.

The data in this study were captured using the method of listening (Sudaryanto 2015: 203), which was listening to the use of language in reporting corruption in newspapers. The method was followed by the use of recording and noting techniques. The research data were in the form of fragments of corruption news text in the newspaper. Newspapers which are used as physical data sources are *Kompas*, *Republika*, *Suara Merdeka*, and *Jawa Pos*. The selection of the newspaper was based on the consideration that *Kompas* and *Republika* newspapers represented national newspapers published in the centre (Jakarta), while *Suara Merdeka* and *Jawa Pos* represented national newspapers published in the regions (Semarang and Surabaya). Data retrieval is carried out for two months with the consideration that the data are sufficient and varied.

Data analysis in this study used the van Dijk critical discourse analysis model to analyze the construction of corruption news texts in newspapers. Van Dijk divided the discourse analysis into three dimensions, namely the text dimension, the dimension of social cognition, and

the dimension of social context/practice. This study focused on the study of the dimensions of the text that is the structure of the text consisting of vocabulary, sentences, and paragraphs to explain and interpret a text. A text consists of three structures/levels namely macrostructure (general meaning, observed by looking at the topic or theme in the text), superstructure (text structure related to the framework of a text, how parts of the text are arranged into the news as a whole: introduction, content, cover), and microstructure (meaning of the text that can be observed from a small part of a text that is words, sentences, paragraphs).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

Based on the results of data collection from *Suara Merdeka*, *Republika*, *Kompas*, and *Jawa Pos* in June-July 2019, various types of report on corruption cases were found. After mapping out some news, a textual analysis was carried out on the discourse by following the perspective of van Dijk's critical discourse analysis. The textual analysis consists of three aspects of analysis, namely macrostructure analysis, superstructure analysis, and microstructure analysis. This study discusses textual analysis of aspects of the macrostructure and the superstructure of news discourse on corruption in newspapers.

Macrostructure

The main study in macrostructure is focused on observing thematic elements. In these thematic elements the global meaning of discourse is examined. A theme is an idea that generally describes the opinions or ideas expressed by someone or a journalist. The theme shows the dominant, central, and main ideas that describe what the journalist wants to express in the news he makes. The global theme raised by the author in reporting corruption is about figures of officials who commit corruption cases.

- (1) *Kasus Setnov yang menyita perhatian publik pun membuat pemerintah berencana membuat penjara khusus bagi para koruptor di pulau terpencil. "Sudah ada pemikiran ke sana untuk membuat lembaga pemasyarakatan khusus untuk koruptor, narkoba, dan khusus para teroris. Bahkan*

kami sudah memikirkan menggunakan pulau-pulau terpencil," kata Menko Polhukam Wiranto. Pemerintah menginginkan hukum ditegakkan secara lugas dan tanpa pandang bulu. Dia mengatakan, pelanggaran hukum harus dijatuhi sanksi (Napi Korupsi Dipindah ke Nusakambangan, Suara Merdeka, 18 Juni 2019)

(Setnov's case which caught the public's attention also made the government plan to create a special prison for corruptors on a remote island. "There have been thoughts there to create a special prison for corruptors, narcotics, and specifically terrorists. We have even thought about using remote islands," said Coordinating Minister for Political, Legal and Security Affairs Wiranto. The government wants the law to be enforced straightforwardly and indiscriminately. He said, lawbreakers, must be sanctioned) (Corruption Inmates Moved to Nusakambangan, Suara Merdeka, 18 June 2019)

- (2) Menteri Hukum dan Hak Asasi Manusia (Menkumham) Yasonna Laoly keberatan bila narapidana kasus korupsi dipindahkan ke Lembaga Pemasyarakatan (Lapas) Nusakambangan, Cilacap, Jawa Tengah. Menurut dia, Lapas Nusakambangan bertipe high risk yang tidak cocok untuk napi koruptor. "Nusakambangan adalah lapas yang high risk, lapas supermaksimum security. Narapidana koruptor bukanlah narapidana kategori high risk yang memerlukan supermaksimum security. Jadi, itu persoalannya," kata Yasonna, Selasa (18/6) (Yasonna Tolak Pindahan Napi Koruptor, Republika, 19 Juni 2019)

(Minister of Law and Human Rights Yasonna Laoly was objected if inmates of corruption cases were moved to the Nusakambangan Penitentiary (Prison), Cilacap, Central Java. According to him, Nusakambangan Penitentiary is a high-risk type which is not suitable for corruption prisoners. "Nusakambangan is a high-risk prison, supermaximum security". Corruption inmates are not high-risk inmates who require maximum security. So, that's the problem," said Yasonna, Tuesday (6/18)) (Yasonna Refuses to Move Corruptor Prisoners, Republika, June 19, 2019)

- (3) Pemindahan bekas Ketua DPR dan Ketua Umum Partai Golkar Setya Novanto ke Lembaga Pemasyarakatan Gunung Sindur dinilai tak akan menyelesaikan masalah pembinaan jika persoalan mendasar pembenahan tata kelola sistem permasya-

rahan tak segera dilakukan. Kementerian Hukum dan Hak Asasi Manusia diharapkan tak reaktif untuk jangka pendek dan masa datang dalam pembinaan dan pengelolaan sistem pemasyarakatan yang baik (Pemindahan Novanto ke Gunung Sindur Diragukan, Kompas, 16 Juni 2019)

(The transference of the former DPR Chairman and Golkar Party Chairperson Setya Novanto to the Gunung Sindur Penitentiary is considered not to solve the development problem if the basic problems in managing the penal system are not immediately carried out. The Ministry of Law and Human Rights is expected to be non-reactive in the short term and in the future in the formation and management of good penal systems). (Novanto's Relocation to Mount Sindur is Doubtful, Kompas, 16 June 2019)

- (4) Sebelumnya, Ditjenpas berkomitmen menempatkan napi-napi kasus korupsi kelas kakap di lapas super maximum security di Nusakambangan. Penempatan itu menjadi bagian dari penjeratan bagi koruptor. Penempatan itu menjadi bagian dari penjeratan bagi koruptor. Nah, ulah Setnov yang berulang-ulang menyalahgunakan izin keluar lapas dinilai layak menjadi indikator penempatan napi ke Nusakambangan itu. (KPK Ingin Setnov Dikirim ke Nusakambangan, Jawa Pos, 17 Juni 2019) (Previously, Ditjenpas was committed to putting inmates high-level corruption cases in super maximum security prisons in Nusakambangan. The placement is part of the deterrence for corruptors. The placement is part of the detention for corruptors. Well, the act of Setnov who repeatedly abused the prison exit permit is considered appropriate as an indicator of the placement of prisoners to Nusakambangan) (KPK Wants Setnov to be Sent to Nusakambangan, Jawa Pos, 17 June 2019)

Superstructure

In the superstructure dimension, topics are arranged by arranging sentences or news elements in the desired order. For example, news headlines are at the top and are usually printed thicker in certain sizes and types of letters and even in certain colours. From news headlines, people will easily find out the topics (most important) discussed in the news. Look at the data (5) below.

(5) *KPK-Ditjenpas telah membahas nama napi korupsi yang akan dipindahkan (Yasonna Tolak Pindahkan Napi Koruptor, Republika, 19 Juni 2019)*

(KPK-Ditjenpas has discussed the names of corruption prisoners who will be transferred) (Yasonna Refuses to Move Corruptor Prisoners, Republika, 19 June 2019)

At the lead, reporters revealed that there were discussions about corruption inmates who would be transferred to the Nusakambangan Prison. This was stated explicitly by the media and followed by explanatory speech or discourse builder by inserting footage from Yasonna Laolly's speech. Viewed schematically, the news shows the work of the KPK and Ditjenpas, as well as support for the KPK in cracking down on corruption cases in Indonesia.

In line with that, the Jawa Pos reporter also constructed news about the corruption case that ensnared M. Tamzil with the news scheme as before. The news, entitled "Geledah Pendapa dan Kantor Dinas (The Explosive and Office Service)" begins with the title and is followed by a lead presentation as follows.

(6) *Kasus Suap Pengisian Jabatan di Pemkab Kudus (Geledah Pendapa dan Kantor Dinas, Jawa Pos, 29 Juli 2019)*

(Case of Bribery for Filling in Positions in Kudus Regency Government) (Investigating Pendopo and Service Offices, Jawa Pos, 29 July 2019)

Viewed schematically, the presentation of the news shows the use of investigative news patterns. This can be seen by the development of the results of investigations and detailed research accompanied by leads first. After presenting the lead, the reporter chooses to elaborate each section on the results of the investigation he has conducted to clarify the information to the reader.

The news scheme in Kompas newspaper also uses the same scheme, namely the title, lead, and core of the news, as observed in the news of the disclosure of bribery cases related to filling positions in Kudus. In reporting the case, the news was constructed under the title "*KPK Ungkap Suap Jabatan (KPK Reveals Position Bribery)*", by making use of the unique vocabulary of journalism so that the headline looks short, concise and informative. From the headline, the reporter presents

beginning of the paragraph, as in the following section.

(7) *KPK menangkap Bupati Kudus, Jawa Tengah, M Tamzil atas dugaan suap pengisian jabatan. Tamzil merupakan bekas terpidana korupsi yang memenangi pemilihan bupati tahun 2018 (KPK Ungkap Suap Jabatan, Kompas, 27 Juli 2019).*

(KPK arrested the Regent of Kudus, Central Java, M. Tamzil for alleged bribery in filling positions. Tamzil is a former corruption convict who won the 2018 regent election) (KPK Reveals Bribery Position, Kompas, 27 July 2019).

From this piece of text, the public can immediately conclude and understand what and who is being informed. This type of news uses subjects or actors as the main topic. After the lead, the news anchor is immediately treated to the main event or core news about the chronology and examination of the Holy Regent by the KPK with the insertion of a large size photo. Schematically, the news shows general coverage of corruption cases by M. Tamzil. Thus, the news has a detailed scheme and gives rise to strong explanatory data, for example, the speech of a figure related to the case.

Discussion

The problem of corruption in Indonesia is always interesting to study. The news has always been the headline of various media, both print and television. In Indonesia, corruption is often inseparable with political problems. Even according to Azra (2002: 31), corruption and politics in Indonesia are often referred to as corruption in one breath as KKN or Corruption, Collusion, Nepotism. Corruption has been referring to various "illicit or illegal activities" to get personal or group benefits. This definition then developed so that the notion of corruption emphasizes "abuse of power or public position for personal gain".

Philip (in Azra 2002:31) identified three broad notions that are most often used in various discussions on corruption. First, corruption centred on public offices (public office centred corruption). Philip defines corruption as the behaviour and actions of public officials who deviate from formal public duties. The goal is to get personal benefits of certain people who are closely

related to him like family, relatives and friends. Second, corruption is centred on its impact on the public interest (public interest-centred). In this framework, corruption has occurred when the holder of power or functionaries in the public position, perform certain actions from people in return (whether money or other material). As a result, these actions damage his position and public interest. Third, market-centred corruption which is based on corruption analysis uses public and social choice theory and an economic approach in the framework of political analysis.

In this sense, individuals or groups use corruption as an extra-legal "institution" to influence bureaucratic policies and actions. Only individuals and groups involved in the decision-making process are more likely to commit corruption than other parties. Within this framework, corruption also means the abuse of power by an employee or government official to obtain additional income from the public.

This is in line with the research findings of Zakiyah, et al (2018:163) which states that there is no difference in perceptions of corruption based on the educational background of respondents. The striking gradation of score differences based on the educational background is caused by students and lecturers from the Faculty of Law who understand that in the corridor of law, everyone is considered to know the law. This is known in Legal Fiction Theory which assumes that after legal norms are enforced, everyone is considered to know the law.

In reporting corruption cases in Suara Merdeka, Republika, Kompas, and Jawa Pos newspapers, journalists constructed the news case by focusing on the general news theme. In a report by Suara Merdeka about the Transference of corruption inmates entitled "*Napi Korupsi Dipindah ke Nusakambangan* (Corruption Inmates Moved to Nusakambangan)" (data 1), it appears that journalists are trying to show in detail about the polemic of the transfer of prisoners of corruption.

The effort was shown by journalists by inserting the opinion of legal figures to reinforce the statements that preceded it. The reporter was seen trying to herd public opinion through the description of Wiranto's opinion. Furthermore, Wiranto's statement that the government wants the law to be enforced straightforwardly and indiscriminately seems to reaffirm the govern-

ment's commitment and gain public trust in the field of law.

In contrast to the news from Suara Merdeka, Republika journalists constructed the same news under the title "Yasonna Tolak Pindahkan Napi Koruptor (Yasonna Refuses to Move Corruptor Prisoners)". From this news reporter, the reporters were straightforward in expressing opinions that contradicted Wiranto's statement on the news in Suara Merdeka as in the data excerpt (2).

In the news data excerpt (2), the reporter expressly shows that Yasonna Laodly's opinion is different from the opinion of the wider community. There are several statements regarding the news of the past. In addition to providing information about the results of the research, the journalist also explained that the chronology was used to inform and invite the reading community to witness the results of the trial that were reported as well.

The corruption news fragment of data (3), the news is more focused so it shows the subtle nature of journalists or media. In line with the news from Kompas entitled "Yasonna Tolak Pindahkan Napi Koruptor (Yasonna Refuses to Transfer the Corruptor Prisoner)", journalists focused more on the figure Dahlan Iskan as a suspect and the party fully responsible in this case. This can be seen from the way the news was submitted which made Dahlan the subject of the news without the inclusion of other parties who were also responsible for the disclosure of his statement.

In relation to the focus of the study, which is about the news of corruption, the main theme in this study is the report of corruption cases in Indonesia in 2019. The numerous reports of these corruption cases are motivated by the results of research by ICW regarding the increase in corruption cases in the first half of 2019. Then the legalization of Presidential Regulation or Perpres No. 87 Year 2016 concerning the Clean Sweeping Task Force on Illegal Levies by President Joko Widodo in October 2016 also influenced the increasing coverage of corruption cases in June and July 2019. Additionally, the existence of political figures entangled in the case corruption also makes it even more interesting to report, for example, news about corruption cases that ensnared Setya Novanto, M. Tamzil, Taufik Kurniawan, and others.

Meanwhile, in the superstructure dimension in this study, the structure of discourse is analyzed in relation to the scheme or framework of a text and how the parts of the text are arranged into a complete story. The superstructure arranges topics by arranging sentences or news elements in the desired order. For example, news headlines are at the top and are usually printed thicker in certain sizes and types of letters and even in certain colours. From news headlines, the public will easily find out the topic (most important) discussed in the news. Despite having various schemes, van Dijk (1988: 52) formulates a number of categories of news schemes that construct a story, namely (1) summary, which is marked by two elements namely title and lead, and (2) story, which is the overall news content of introduction to the end.

The news scheme compiled by *Suara Merdeka* media was made in such a way that the style of news writing was straight news. The scheme used is sorted according to the events that occurred, namely the corruption case. The news scheme in the corruption news report was constructed under the title "*Yasonna Khawatir Napi Koruptor Pesta Pora di Nusakambangan* (Yasonna is Worried, Corruptor Prisoner Have Parties in Nusakambangan)", consisting of the headline, and then followed by the core of the news about the concern. In the news, journalists do not raise leads that are usually used by readers to find the core of the news they read. The use of leads in the construction of news in *Suara Merdeka* only appears in big headline news.

While in *Republika*, journalists more often construct their coverage in a long and detailed way. Basically, the news scheme used by *Republika* journalists is almost the same as news in general, namely the existence of titles, leads, and news content. However, the construction of news in *Republika* is always followed by leads

after the title; both headline news and regular news. All the news is always constructed by placing leads at the beginning of the news describing the removal of corruption prisoners.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion, the main theme in this study is reporting Indonesia's corruption cases in 2019. In reporting corruption cases in the newspaper, *Suara Merdeka*, *Republika*, and *Kompas* discussed related news that focuses on the general news theme. In reporting, *Suara Merdeka's* reporters ask questions about the polemic about the movement of the prisoner of corruption. This effort was published by inserting people's opinions to reinforce the opinions that preceded it. Meanwhile, *Republika* constructs news that contains opinions that oppose the news statement in *Suara Merdeka*. In line with this matter, *Kompas* focuses more on the subject matter as a suspect and the party who are fully responsible in this case. This can be seen from the way the news is conveyed in which the character becomes the subject of the news without mentioning other parties who are also responsible for revealing their statements.

Meanwhile, in the superstructure dimension, the topics are discussed by arranging sentences or news elements in the desired order. News headlines are placed at the top and are usually printed thicker in certain sizes and types of letters and even in certain colors. From news headlines, the public will easily find out the topic (most important) discussed in the news. Despite having a variety of schemes, a number of categories of news schemes that build a news story are summary marked with elements of title, lead, and story which is the overall news content from introduction to the end.



THE RELATION OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS ABOUT ROHINGYA NEWS

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Abstract

Language plays an important role in human life in shaping discourse. Media forms the discourse to the community. Language elements that form the discourse of news according to Van Dijk include macro, superstructure and micro analysis. One of the news that concerns the public is the news about Rohingya. Discourse analysis of the news about Rohingya is very important to do because Rohingya news contains political discourse, religion and ethnic conflicts that shape public opinion after reading, seeing or hearing news about Rohingya case. This research was conducted to be able to know in depth the discourse of Rohingya news from three different media namely VOA, Jakarta Post E-paper version and CNN. The purpose of the selection of these three media is the discourse of Rohingya news can be analyzed from different types of news, from the print version, online version and news version on television. This research uses qualitative descriptive method because the researcher will directly find how is the discourse in 3 types of media that is print, online and television. The results of this study, from the textual analysis can be seen that every news program has a different theme in shaping the discourse in this case the news about Rohingya. The news of The Jakarta Post E-paper, VOA News and CNN News have the same discussion about Rohingya cases. The result of the analysis of macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure showed that there is different way to present the news but the theme is conical on the same discussion that is the religion problem in Rohingya and the victims of the conflict in struggling for the human right.

Keywords: discourse analysis, news, Rohingya

Introduction

Language elements that form the discourse of news according to Van Dijk include macro, superstructure and micro analysis. Macro structure is the global or general meaning of a text that can be observed from the topic or theme in a text. Superstructure is a discourse scheme of the introduction, the subject matter and the conclusion. The micro element is the semantic, syntactic, stylistic, and rhetorical meaning in a text. All elements of analysis is a unity of meaning that builds a discourse, in this case the discourse of mass media coverage. One of the public concerns is the news about Rohingya. Rohingya became the concern of the entire world community because there are religious issues that cause tension and trigger conflict from ethnic groups in Myanmar. Various kinds of news have

emerged from various countries that are presenting religious conflicts in Myanmar.

Discourse analysis of the news about Rohingya is very important to do because Rohingya news contains political discourse, religion and ethnic conflict that shape public opinion after reading, seeing or hearing news about Rohingya case. This research was conducted to be able to know in depth the discourse of Rohingya news from three different media namely VOA, Jakarta Post E-paper version and CNN. The reason for the selection of these three media is the discourse of Rohingya news can be analyzed from different types of news, from the print version, online version and news version on television. It is very important to be analyzed to find out whether the discourse of the three media in discussing the preaching of Rohingya has the same discourse or not.



Gee et al(2012, p. 1), state that discourse analysis is the study of the use of language. This study includes about the meanings and the actions that we act and use language in a specific contexts. Van Dijk (1993) said that critical discourse analysis is the study about the relation of discourse with the dominance, power, social inequality and about the position of discourse analyst in the social relationships. Van dijk (1980, p. 9), states that the textual analysis of discourse is including macrostructures, superstructures and microstructures. The macrostructure is implying to the global meaning in theme or topic. The superstructure is how the text arranged from element of a word, phrase or sentences, while microstructure is the analysis of word, sentence and the proposition in a text. The research about the analysis of microstructures is done by Mandarani, the result Mandarani's research about the macrostructures analysis of Ahok at Jakarta Gubernatorial 2017 is in 2017 Jakarta's election use Fairclough's discourse analysis theory, namely Ahok during the campaign hampered charged with blasphemy. The choice of word in the Jawa Pos newspaper shows that the news has meaning in a specific context about Ahok in gubernatorial election in Jakarta. As stated by Brown and Yule (1983, p. 1). Discourse analysis has a function that is analyze the use of language.

Methodology

This research uses descriptive qualitative design because the researcher will directly examine how the analysis of the discourse of Rohingya in 3 types of media, namely print, online and television. The primary data sources in this study were news from VOA media, the Jakarta Post E-Paper version, and CNN news containing news about Rohingya. The data is collected by reading method, which is reading the news in VOA media, Jakarta Post E-Paper version and CNN News about Rohingya news. The technique used is by analyzing microstructure, superstructure and macrostructure according to critical discourse analysis of Van Dijk.

Findings and Discussion

This research is taking three sources of data. They are Jakarta Post E-Paper, VOA News and CNN News. In Jakarta Post E-paper there were 4 news presents about Rohingya with the theme "Human Right. The analysis started from the firsts news with the title "Resolving the Rohingya Crisis the ASEAN way". This news published in September 7th, 2017. The macrostructure of the news deliver message which is to resolve big legal problem issue needs organization with smart diplomatic moves. It is clearly explained in the superstructure about the motives behind migration of Rohingya were injustice, violence and poverty and gives effect across the region. In the microstructure emphasized the idea of the Rohingya case has taken global attention, the act of ASEAN is really hoped to end humanitarian outrage.

Second news in Jakarta Post E-Paper with the title "Myanmar laying mines near border: Bangladesh sources" published in September 7th, 2017. In the macrostructure discuss about the explosion of landmines in the border Myanmar and Bangladesh on Monday around 2:25 p.m. It had hurt one boy and also prevented the return of Rohingya fleeing violence. It is supported with the detail in superstructure about the opinion from Dhaka people toward the landmines in the border of Myanmar and Bangladesh. Those people said that the laid mines in Myanmar in order to prevent the return of Rohingya Muslims fleeing violence. And then, the writer mentions the number of victims and the mine materials. In addition, the writer also shows the evidence when the mine is exploded. The microstructure of this news is the Reuters have tried to ask the reasons why Myanmar did it, but Myanmar's army and Prime Minister, Suu Kyi, no comment. It proves Myanmar tends to make Rohingya be under pressured and waste them.

The third news in Jakarta Post is "Rohingya fight called 'ethnic cleansing'" published in September 12th, 2017. The macrostructure of this news is about



Rohingya are protected by the United Nations human rights. Even though, they seem too slow in response toward the explosion though, but soon as it happened, a report to the United Nations Human Rights Council is accomplished to condemn Myanmar. Then in superstructure the writer explains the reason why United Nations human rights chief takes control. And then, he explained indirectly how disappointed the chief is upon Myanmar's action. In the microstructure analysis, the writer tends to show the real opinion from the UN human rights chief without any changed.

The analysis of fourth news in Jakarta Post with the title "Turning a blind eye to the Rohingya crisis", published in October 2nd, 2017 in the macrostructure is The UN secretary general, Guterres, told that Rohingya case is unresolved conflict and systematic violence. It is also clearly explained in the superstructure that supported the idea about the debatable statement from ASEAN chairman, the Philippines Foreign Secretary who planned to condemn the attack against Myanmar and acts of violence against civilians. The microstructure analysis it can be seen that the journalist tried to give the detail information about one of seven lists in order to describe how serious the UN upon this crisis.

From all the four news of The Jakarta Post E-Paper present the Rohingya news in the macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure with the discussion of the conflict in Rohingya, consist of the explanation of the fact the big problem in Rohingya, the victims of the conflict, then the united nation takes control of the crisis and Rohingya cases still become unresolved conflict.

The second source is the news from VOA. The first news from VOA with the title "Rohingya Insurgents Call for Humanitarian Cease-fire" published in September 10, 2017. The analysis of macrostructure is the humanitarian crisis that attacked Rohingya people in Myanmar caused by both Rohingya insurgents and

Myanmar military. The superstructure is persuade readers to move together to end the humanitarian crisis in Rakhine. It is supported with the analysis of microstructure about it is totally important to end the violation that happen between Rohingya insurgents and Myanmar military in order to prevent the float of humanitarian victims in Rakhine state.

The VOA second news with the title "UN: Human Rights Protections Threatened by Growing Authoritarianism". September 11, 2017. The analysis of macrostructure is about the humanitarian crisis in the range of human rights protections. The macrostructure is supported with the superstructure analysis about United Nations also took a role in the sensitive issue such as human rights violations to rescue the victims. The analysis of microstructure is the humanitarian crisis that happens around the world with the member of United Nation at the opening of the 36th session of the U.N.

The VOA third news with the title Rohingya Humanitarian Emergency Grows as Refugees Continue to Flee published in October 13, 2017. The analysis of macrostructure is the struggle of Rohingya refugees in order to survive in Bangladesh until they got humanitarian aid from several agencies. It is supported by the superstructure that explained about Rohingya refugees' life. The microstructure analysis of this news about several data about the amount of Rohingya refugees

The VOA fourth news with the title US Calls for End of Violence in Myanmar published in October 27, 2017. The analysis of the macrostructure is the general topic toward the humanitarian crisis in the range of the order from US to end the violence. The superstructure stated about how is US order Myanmar military to stop their action toward Rohingya people and persuade them to also took an action to help Rohingya's humanitarian aid. In the microstructure analysis found that journalist puts the fact in field toward the statement from US.



The analysis of all the VOA news shows that there is humanitarian crisis in Rohingya. The UN starts to take control of Rohingya cases. VOA also presents the struggle of Rohingya refugee until they got the humanitarian right. US is also asked Myanmar military to stop the action.

CNN is also become the data sources. The first news from CNN News with the title "Rohingya crisis: It's not genocide." The macrostructure analysis discuss about the cause of the Rohingya crisis between the mistake of Myanmar's government which Buddhist majority that can't protect its citizens or the mistakes of Muslim Myanmar especially Rohingya. It is supported in the analysis of superstructure of the news that Myanmar government denied the existence of genocide because the government of Myanmar seemed to be in the midpoint of protecting its citizens both Buddhist and Muslim Non-Rohingya. In the microstructure analysis in deep the journalist wrote one of monks that he was only against extremist and Muslim terrorists threatening Myanmar's sovereignty.

CNN second news with the title "Rohingya crisis unleashes fears among Myanmar's other Muslims". The analysis of macrostructure is the concerns of Myanmar Muslims against the treatment of Buddhists, as well as the concerns of against the Muslim population. It is continued by the analysis in superstructure about the tension between Muslims and Buddhists after the events of the Rohingya crisis. In the microstructure it shows the Journalists intend to portray the concerns of non-Rohingya Myanmar Muslims through the closure of two Islamic schools in the city of Thaketa and the killing of a government adviser as well as a Muslim, Ko Ni.

CNN third news with the title "Pope Francis: The presence of God today is also called Rohingya". The macrostructure discusses about the Pope said apology to Rohingya refugees for the world's cruelty and indifference. In superstructure analysis Pope Francis's speech to religious leaders in

Dhaka, Bangladesh on the partisanship of God to his Spirit Muslims. In detail microstructure analysis is about Pope Francis will meet a group of Rohingya refugees. Pope Francis will say apologized to Rohingya refugees.

The analysis of all CNN News form macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure is about the cause of Rohingya crisis, Myanmar Muslims against the treatment of Buddhists and Pope said apology to Rohingya refugees for the world's cruelty and indifference.

Fairclough (2003, p. 19) stated that discussion texts are seen as a part of social events, which people could interact and act in the terms of social event. Here this research is about the text in the social event about Rohingya cases. The relation between three media present the news about Rohingya is Jakarta Post E-Paper has their own way to present the news about Rohingya by exposing to the explanation of the fact the big problem in Rohingya, the victims of the conflict, then the united nation takes control of the crisis but then Rohingya cases still become unresolved conflict. The journalist connect all the news in Jakarta Post E-paper in macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure to support the cases in Rohingya related to the theme of the news, that is big problem of Rohingya cases. The same way in VOA news, the journalist presents the humanitarian crisis in Rohingya by giving the detail information in macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure. The analysis showed the result that UN starts to take control of Rohingya cases. VOA also presents the struggle of Rohingya refugee until they got the humanitarian right. US is also asked Myanmar military to stop the action. All the detail brings to the one theme that is human right of the people in Rohingya. In CNN News, the analysis of macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure formed the result such as, the cause of Rohingya crisis, Myanmar Muslims against the treatment of Buddhists and Pope said apology to



Rohingya refugees for the world's cruelty and indifference. The analysis put the theme of CNN news about Rohingya is the religion conflict in Rohingya.

The Jakarta Post E-paper, VOA and CNN news which has analyzed with textual analysis model of Van Dijk in macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure have the same discussions in persuading and calling the readers to support the effort for ending the cases and re-enforcing human rights law for victims in Rakhine.

Conclusion

The relation between three media present the news about Rohingya is Jakarta Post E-Paper has their own way to present the news about Rohingya by exposing to the explanation of the fact the big problem in Rohingya, the victims of the conflict. The news of The Jakarta Post E-paper, VOA News and CNN News has the same discussion about Rohingya cases. The result of the analysis of macrostructure, superstructure and microstructure showed that there is different way but the theme is conical on the same discussion that is the big problem in Rohingya and the victims of the conflict in struggling the human right.

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